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ABSTRACT

In response to projected increases in enrollment in public speaking at Missouri's St. Louis Community College-Meramec, a project was undertaken to develop a plan for incorporating gender communication into the public speaking course. The first phase of the project involved a review of literature related to women in education and gender research, finding that men and women do possess different public speaking styles and that an androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, textbook selection, and teaching strategies. The second phase involved an analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and the instructional methods currently used in the college's communications classes. In the third phase a survey was conducted of 139 professional speakers in the St. Louis area to determine gender differences in speaking styles and preferred methods of instruction, while in the fourth, in-depth interviews were conducted with 15 respondents. Based on these activities, a plan was developed for upgrading the public speaking course that included a reference manual on speaking styles and teaching strategies, a guide containing gender communication materials and curriculum revision plans, three 2-hour faculty workshops, and a campus-wide staff development program. Contains 346 references. Appendixes include descriptions of department objectives and evaluation results, the questionnaire and interview questions, results from the textbook analysis and surveys, the reference manual and guide, and descriptions of the workshop sessions. (TGI)

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DEVELOPMENT OF A PLAN FOR INTEGRATING GENDER COMMUNICATION RESEARCH AND WOMEN'S PREFERRED STYLES OF LEARNING INTO THE PUBLIC SPEAKING COURSE AT ST. LOUIS COMMUNITY COLLEGE-MERAMEC

Angela Grupas

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A major applied research project report presented to Programs for
Higher Education in partial fulfillment of the
requirement for the degree
of Doctor of Education

Nova Southeastern University
September 11, 1996

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by

Angela Grupas

September 11, 1996

St. Louis Community College-Meramec (SLCC-Meramec) is a metropolitan community college offering associate degrees, transfer, and certificate programs. Because of an anticipated increase in public speaking enrollment, the Communications Department Chair at SLCC-Meramec desires to upgrade and improve the public speaking course content and methodology.

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan for incorporating gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec. A total of five phases were executed to complete this project. The first phase consisted of completing a series of literature reviews in response to the first four research questions. The second phase included an analysis of public speaking materials currently available and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec. The third phase included the development and

the distribution of a questionnaire to male and female professional speakers in the St. Louis area. The intent of the questionnaire was to determine gender differences in public speaking and the preferred methods of instruction. Questions were developed to note perceived differences in male and female public speaking styles. Respondents were asked to provide suggestions for improving public speaking instruction. The fourth phase consisted of the development and execution of in-depth interviews to solicit information regarding male and female speaking styles, male and female preference for public speaking instruction and methodology, and the impact of gender differences on public speaking styles. The fifth phase consisted of the development of a plan for making recommendations to the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec to incorporate gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Through the review of textbooks, literature, and data gathered from surveys and interviews, it was determined that men and women possess different public speaking styles as indicated through examples of gender differences regarding language usage, nonverbal communication, and evaluation procedures. An androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, textbook selection, and teaching strategies. Whereas traditional education supports the male model of learning, females' preferred styles of learning are relational and collaborative. Activity-centered, analytical oriented, and a competitive approach to decision making are characteristics which represent the male model of learning. Feminist pedagogy, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning strategies were identified as enhancing women's styles of learning. Faculty-lead curriculum revision plans provide examples for transforming the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Results from an analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicated that students of public speaking may be receiving gender-biased information from these texts because the content of these texts appears to exclude women. From the 139 questionnaires, respondents indicated that (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning or include issues related to women or multi-culturalism, and (b) the method of instruction and the gender of the instructor can affect the degree of gender differences in the classroom.

Fifteen interviewed respondents indicated that (a) men and women agree that different public speaking styles exist, and (b) men and women agree on descriptions of the most effective public speaking content, and (c) men and women agree on the most effective public speaking instructor.

In order to integrate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, the following components of the project were developed: (a) a reference manual was prepared, (b) a guide was developed, (c) three two-hour workshops were created, and (d) a campus-wide staff development program was developed. The reference manual consists of a compilation of research concerning men's and women's public speaking styles and inclusive teaching methodologies. The guide consists of gender communication materials within the context of public speaking, including curriculum revision plans. The workshops consist of three goals: (a) to create a common base of knowledge of gender differences in public speaking behavior, (b) to understand learning styles and women's preferred styles of learning, and (c) to identify the strategies which can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, and incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course. The purpose of the campus-wide staff development program is to increase faculty's awareness of gender communication research and inclusive teaching methodologies.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

St. Louis Community College-Meramec (SLCC-Meramec) is a metropolitan community college offering associate degrees, transfer courses, and certificate programs. Further, SLCC-Meramec offers a college transfer program, with ten options, and more than 90 career programs in areas such as horticulture, interior design, and law enforcement. The St. Louis Community College district consists of three main campuses and two satellite learning centers, which offer credit and not-for-credit courses for over 30,000 students. Within the St. Louis Community College district, the faculty numbers 435 full time and 1,908 part time instructors. SLCC-Meramec is the largest of the three campuses with an enrollment of approximately 14,000 students each semester. As of 1993, the average age of the community college student at the Meramec campus is 28 years, with the campus population composed of 59% female and 41% male students. Of the students, 71% attend classes part-time and 29% full-time.

The Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec is a multi-discipline, multi-facility educational center. Twenty-five communications courses are offered per semester, including speech communications, mass communications, journalism, public relations, advertising, and film studies. Three sections of the public speaking course are offered each semester. One section is offered during the evening. According to student survey responses conducted by the Communications Department for a 1993 Program Evaluation, students enroll in communications courses in order to; (a) fulfill general education requirements, (b) achieve an associate degree in

Communication Arts, (c) improve existing job skills, (d) develop skills for the workplace, retrain or achieve promotion, (e) increase personal growth and enrichment, and (f) explore a variety of opportunities prior to identifying a major and developing a definite educational plan (St. Louis Community College [SLCC], 1994).

Nature of the Problem

Two compelling factors suggest need for improvement in the public speaking course: (a) studies showing increasing enrollment expected at SLCC-Meramec, and (b) the preliminary review of the literature indicating the lack of gender-fair materials and teaching methodologies in public speaking courses. First, enrollment data and results from telephone surveys conducted by the Communications Department Chair from the Communications chairs at transfer institutions indicate an anticipated increase in enrollment. Second, preliminary reviews of literature indicate instructional methods and materials are not gender-fair and consequently suggest the public speaking course should be revised.

All degree-seeking and transfer students are required to enroll in at least one communications course, unless they have transferred in communications credit. Therefore, approximately 90% of the approximately 15,000 students on the Meramec campus take at least one communications course during their tenure at SLCC-Meramec (Dixon, personal communications, February 14, 1996). While 80% of the students elect to enroll in Oral Communications (COM 101), an increase of students who enroll in the Public Speaking course (COM 107) exists. During the Fall 1995 semester, the department chair of the Communications Department conducted telephone surveys with the chairs of Communications Departments at various four-year institutions and other transfer institutions to determine specific communications course requirements (see Appendix A). "Due to requirement trends in the business and education curriculums at some of the transfer universities, the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec expects, at minimum, a 25 percent increase in public speaking enrollment" (B. Dixon, Communications Chair, personal communication, April 15, 1996).

B. Dixon stated that many of the transfer institutions, such as St. Louis University, Concordia University-Wisconsin St. Louis Center (CUW-St. Louis), the University of Missouri system, and Webster University are requiring public speaking, especially in the fields of education and business (personal communication, January 23, 1996). As a result of the 1995 telephone survey, Dixon found that three universities and one state university system indicated similar changes in course requirements.

St. Louis University, for example, has redesigned the business curriculum to include a public speaking course as a requirement. Further, students registered in the Management and Communication major at CUW-St. Louis Center are required to enroll in a public speaking course. V. Schoedel, director of the CUW-St. Louis Center, indicated that many students choose to transfer public speaking course credits from SLCC-Meramec (personal communication, April 12, 1996).

The University of Missouri system requires education majors to enroll in the public speaking course. Webster University requires business and education majors to enroll in public speaking. These requirements will tend to cause an increase in the enrollment in the public speaking course at the Meramec campus by students planning to transfer to Webster University and the University of Missouri.

The Communications Department Chair at SLCC-Meramec indicated that because of anticipated enrollment increases in the public speaking course, the content and methodology of the public speaking course should be reassessed. The lead faculty member of the public speaking course (the writer) was asked to undertake that task. "The trend in the public's understanding and focus of gender based issues points to a need for the revision of college courses just to stay current" (D. Dufer, Assistant Department Chair, personal communications, April 16, 1996).

A preliminary review of the literature supports the need for revisions of public speaking courses in general. While a plethora of texts, journals, trade manuals, and popular books on the subject of public speaking exists, research in the area of public speaking and gender is lacking. Over 92 public speaking texts and trade manuals have been published. Ample research in the area of male and female styles of communication exists (Pearson & West, 1991; Tannen, 1990; Wood, 1993). Fox-Genovese (1989) states that little doubt can be cast that the rules in public speaking have been gender specific (p. 32). Kramer (cited in Vonnegut, 1992) argues the need for more scholarship analyzing the differences between men and women speakers. When the literature concerning public speaking and gender communications is closely analyzed, it is apparent that with the exception of 12 academic journal articles, there is a lack of research incorporating public speaking and gender communication.

Rosser (1990) and Sandler (1991) refer to a definite "chilly climate" existing for women in math and science classes. Hall and Sandler (1982) maintain that a "chilly classroom climate" exists for women in higher education (p. 8). Wood and Lenze (1991a) reviewed researchers who have collectively surmised that contemporary western classrooms tend to favor men's ways of thinking and learning and to disconfirm women's ways (p. 17). This line of reasoning may also be appropriate as an explanation for the absence of women in public speaking texts and the exclusion of citing women in the public speaking course (Campbell, 1991). Sprague reports that most public speaking texts feature speeches only by men (cited in Ivy & Backlund, 1994). Of five anthologies on the rhetoric of the American Revolution and the Constitution, only two include works by women (Vonnegut, 1992).

Evidence supports the assumption that public speaking is taught using an androcentric pedagogical slant (K. Foss, 1992; S. Foss, 1992; Makau, 1992; Rakow, 1993; Thomas, 1993). Argumentation courses perpetuate a patriarchal, hierarchical perspective (Makau, 1992). "Personal experiences and emotions [women's style], while viewed as powerful tools for persuasion, were considered ineffectual and, in fact, hazardous to good reasoning" (Makau, p.81). Gerlach and Hart (1992) support that female students do not interact in class at the same levels as male students. Studies by Aitken and Neer (1991), Gerlach and Hart (1992), Kelly (1991), and Pearson and West (1991) state that when identical classroom behaviors are demonstrated by male and female students, the female students' classroom behaviors are devalued by male and female instructors.

Certain writers of public speaking texts assume that all public speakers are similar and need to be trained and coached in the same manner (Linver, 1994; Mandel, 1993; Osgood, 1988; Smith, 1991). Thomas (1991) believes, "Women are held to standards of rhetorical excellence based on overcoming their gender, while males are held to different standards based on the ability to overcome problems. . ." (p. 46). In a 1986 study, Campbell discovered there is a feminine style of rhetoric (cited in Pearson, Turner, & Todd-Mancillas, 1991). While research on male and female speaking is available, (Basow, 1992; S. Foss, 1992; Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Kearney & Plax, 1996), a lack of evidence indicates that a prescriptive text addressing the research does not exist.

This Major Applied Research Project (MARP) was intended to develop a plan to incorporate gender communication materials and gender-fair teaching methods into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec. Upon completion, the plan will be presented to the Communications Department Chair and full-time Communications faculty members for possible implementation by the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec. The combination of SLCC-Meramec's desire to revise the public speaking course in addition to reviews of the literature, provide evidence that revising the public speaking course content and instructional methodologies at SLCC-Meramec is necessary.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan to incorporate gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methods into the public speaking course at St. Louis Community College-Meramec.

Background and Significance of the Problem

Data assembled from SLCC documents provide information indicating an anticipated increase in enrollment in communications courses. A preliminary review of literature suggests possible exclusionary course content and instructional methodologies at SLCC-Meramec, in particular, while academic research cited provides evidence of exclusionary content and methodologies in higher education, in general.

Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec

Five separate SLCC evaluations add support to the need for improvement of course content and methodology. First, a Task Force on General Education Reform was organized by the St. Louis Community College district in November 1995, to investigate general education requirements. Chancellor G. Stephenson charged the committee with the responsibility of reforming general education requirements. The 15-faculty-member committee represented the three campuses of the St. Louis Community College district and was chaired by the President of the Florissant Valley campus. The committee recommended that innovative courses and new approaches to learning be adopted.

Second, the 1990 and 1993 Program Evaluations of the Communications Department provided evidence that a change is needed. The program evaluations provide the Communications Department with data regarding instruction, course content, and student and faculty concerns. The 1990 and 1993 reports recommended that diversity education should be incorporated into communications courses, including Oral Communication (COM 101) and Public Speaking (COM 107), and that the content and instruction of communications courses should be continually improved. St. Louis Community College believes diversity education should encompass international and multi-cultural perspectives, value and respect differences, and look for innovative and creative approaches which would enhance learner success and lead to student achievement (SLCC, 1990).

Third, a 1995 survey conducted by the Speech Communication Association (SCA) of its members determined communication competencies necessary for successful communication. The speaking and listening competencies reflect the need for competent communicators. Methods to acquire these competencies are reported in the survey.

Fourth, an analysis of the enrollment trends in the public speaking course over the last 3 years determined that men and women are enrolling in the course in equal numbers. During the interim semesters, a 3-week semester offered after the spring term, the public speaking course enrollment consisted of approximately 65% female students and 35% male students. The 3-year interim enrollment trend (1993-1995) signifies an increase in female student enrollment.

Fifth, a preliminary analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks 25 of which are used at SLCC-Meramec indicated that references to gender-specific behavior is consistently absent. Implications from this analysis suggested that public speaking students may be receiving exclusionary course content from gender-biased textbooks.

Task Force on General Education Reform

The College-Wide Task Force on General Education Reform, chaired by SLCC-Florissant Valley President Dr. I. McPhail, outlined responsibilities of the SLCC reform plan, emphasizing the development of innovative courses and approaches, the infusion of international and multi-cultural perspectives, and the improvement of teaching and learning (McPhail, 1996). (see Appendix B). Although specific courses on gender communication and intercultural communication exist at SLCC-Meramec, inclusive teaching methodologies and course content comprising the works of women need to be incorporated in the communications curriculum (B. Dixon, personal communications, January, 14, 1996).

1990 and 1993 Program Evaluations for the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec

In 1990 and 1993, the Communications Department conducted Program Evaluations of the communications courses. The Chair and the Assistant Chair of the Communications Department supervised the 1990 and 1993 departmental evaluations. The Registrar, Registration Office, and the Data Processing Lab on campus assisted the Communications Department in completing the program evaluations. Former students were reached by obtaining records provided by the Registrar's Office and enrollment records provided by the Registration Office determined current students. The tabulation of the survey responses was conducted by the Data Processing Lab. In the 1990 Program Evaluation, 292 students responded to the questionnaire, 169 current students and 123 former students. A total of 135 current students and 499 former students participated in the 1993 Communications Department Program Evaluation.

As outlined in the 1993 Program Evaluation of the Communications Department, seven goals and objectives were developed. Two are pertinent in demonstrating the need for the improvement of the public speaking course (see Appendix C). The first goal was that the Communications Department will continue to develop the basic communications course. The second goal was that the Communications Department will continue to pursue the objective of assisting the study of diversity (SLCC, 1994). Further, the issues of student diversity and the needs of the population were one of the four goals of the 1990 Program Evaluation (SLCC-Meramec, 1990).

The 1990 Program Evaluation's objectives were to survey current and former students to determine students' views on the effectiveness of instruction within the Communications Department and to determine what efforts are needed to assist faculty in course development. (see Appendix D). The majority of responses showed at least 90% were within the "satisfied" to "very satisfied" range. However, respondents stressed that improvement was needed in faculty's choice of instructional methodologies.

Results of the 1993 Program Evaluation can be summarized as follows: (a) enrollment in the basic Oral Communication course will increase; (b) enrollment in humanities electives, such as Cultural Communication (COM 200) and Oral Interpretation (COM 111) will increase; and (c) students will be trained to perform job skills such as public speaking and interviewing (see Appendix E).

The 1993 Program Evaluation committee for the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec reported on the strengths, concerns, and recommendations for the Communications Department based on the student survey data, enrollment trends, and faculty input. Students indicated being impressed with the pragmatic, hands-on approach to the courses and the skill-based nature of communications courses. A significant finding was the need expressed by employers for stronger employee communication skills.

The data from the 1990 and 1993 Programs Evaluations for the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec indicate that while students appear to be satisfied with the content and instruction offered through the department, it is the goal of the Communications Department to incorporate diversity education and to improve the content and instruction of the courses. The mission of St. Louis Community College includes providing "educational and training needs [to] its diverse community," and its commitment to "delivery of high quality instruction and support programs to the broad range of students . . ." (St Louis Community College, 1994, p. 2). The intent of this Major Applied Research Project (MARP) is to improve the content of the public speaking course and to develop gender-fair teaching methodologies in order to reach a more diverse student population. Results from the 1990 and 1993 Program Evaluations reflect the need for this project.

Speech Communication Association Competencies

A survey conducted by the Speech Communication Association (SCA), the national academic organization for Communications faculty, determined the competencies to be achieved in communications courses. The SCA developed communication competencies based on a survey of deans of instruction of the 1200 colleges belonging to the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges. In 1995, the SCA Task Force on Community College Competencies developed a core list of competencies which are essential for successful communication. The SCA reports that "effective oral communication involves generating messages and delivering them in standard American English with attention to vocal variety, articulation, and nonverbal signals" (Speech Communication Association, 1995, p. 2). (see Appendix F).

Public Speaking Enrollment

According to the tabulation of enrollment at SLCC-Meramec in the public speaking course from Spring semester 1993 until Fall 1995, of a total of 376 students, 183 or 48.7% were women, while 193 or 51.3% were male. Thus, there appeared to be a fairly equal representation of both men and women in public speaking courses offered at SLCC-Meramec.

During the interim semester (May-June), enrollment data for the past three years indicated that 48 or 64.9% of females versus 26 or 35.1% of males enrolled in the interim public speaking course. There are two possible reasons for this enrollment trend. First, transfer credit is commonly devoid of grade assessment, whereby the student transfers three credits to the institution without the grade entering into the student's overall grade-point average. Second, the interim semester is an intensive three-week course which meets each day of the week for 3 hours. "Traditionally, transfer students enroll during the interim semester to gain some college credits to transfer to their primary institution" (B. Dixon, personal communication, February 28, 1996).

Analysis of Public Speaking Texts and Tradebooks

Research has determined that public speaking texts and ancillary information exclude women and these texts maintain an androcentric bias (Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996; Wood, 1994). To augment the reported research, the

Communications Department Chair required the public speaking lead faculty member (the writer) to analyze public speaking texts and trade books. A total of 92 public speaking texts and tradebooks were analyzed to determine the amount of gender-inclusive information included within the content of the texts. Each text was analyzed according to 5 coding categories: (a) reference to "gender" in the index, (b) ratio of female-to-male speech examples, (c) multi-cultural reference, (d) mention of gender differences in language, and (e) reference to gender as part of audience demographics (see Appendix G).

A summary of the results from this analysis indicate there is an absence of gender references in the public speaking texts and tradebooks. This review of public speaking textbooks and tradebooks, along with a summary of research materials concerning learning styles and inclusive teaching methodologies, was presented to the chair of the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec during a meeting about staff development programs. The department chair suggested that multi-cultural awareness, emphasizing gender, be implemented within the communications curriculum (see Appendix H). The writer of this project was awarded a sabbatical leave from the SLCC district to develop a plan involving the implementation of gender-fair course content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec (see Appendix I).

Exclusion of Women

As enrollment statistics indicate, there has been an increase in socially diverse populations within the educational system, including an increase of women, minority students, and socially and economically disadvantaged students (Levine, 1989). With the increase of women attending college and entering the workforce, it is imperative that women receive the same academic instruction as men (Higginbotham, 1990). The exclusionary attitude concerning women and public speaking continues to prevail on the college campus (Campbell, 1991). S. Foss (1992) indicates that the male worldview and its accompanying value system are represented in college classrooms, particularly in the public speaking classroom (p. 53). Rakow (1992) believes that the current curriculum remains partial and incomplete, making invisible those who are not white, male, and worthy of study (p. 92).

The status quo in the public speaking area is one perpetuated by the absence of women and the focus on the androcentric model of discourse (Peterson, 1991). As early as 1976, researchers (Wheeler, Wilson, & Tarantola, 1976) reported that high-status speakers, including men and Anglo-Americans, have been perceived as more effective communicators than those persons perceived as having low status, mainly women.

Gilligan's, In a Different Voice, describes women's moral reasoning as distorted when it is interpreted within the predominantly male perspective (cited in Wood, 1993). As early as 1982, Gilligan noticed differences from the white male norm in the female subjects of her study (cited in Anderson & Adams, 1992, p. 22). In the college classroom, the masculine traits are often honored and revered (Higginbotham, 1990). Philbin, Meier, Huffman and Boverie (1995) describe a masculine bias present in most traditional educational curricula and teaching methodologies. Feminist pedagogy experts (Beckman, 1991; Dunn, 1993; Schniedewind, 1993; Shrewsbury, 1993;

Wood, 1993) believe that an inclusionary classroom can foster a productive learning environment for women and men.

Research Questions

In order to develop a plan for the inclusion of gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methods into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, the following research questions were identified:

1. What does the literature yield regarding gender differences in public speaking behavior?

2. What does the literature yield regarding women's preferred styles of learning?

3. What does the literature yield regarding public speaking instruction at institutions of higher education and the inclusion of women's styles of learning?

4. What teaching methodologies have been identified in the literature which would address women's preferred styles of learning?

5. What are the essential steps for developing recommendations to the Communications Department Chair which will facilitate the integration of gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec?

Definition of Terms

Androcentric. This term refers to the male-centerness of research materials such as academic literature, textbooks, and tradebooks.

Curriculum plan. An academic plan at St. Louis Community College-Meramec incorporating departmental needs, concerns, and requirements to produce courses and programs.

Feminist pedagogy. This term refers to a type of inclusive teaching methodology which incorporates collaborative learning, interdependence, and shared responsibility.

Gender. This term refers to the psychological attributes of masculinity and femininity, not related to biological sex.

Gender communication. This type of communication refers to the way males and females communicate.

Gender-fair. This term refers to course materials and teaching methodologies which are inclusive of all students and which allow equal representation of male and female attitudes, beliefs, and values.

Gender stereotype. This term refers to a group of traits and roles generally attributed to either men or women.

Inclusive teaching methodologies. These methodologies consist of instructional strategies which are fair to all students by acknowledging diversity in the classroom environment.

Learning styles. This term refers to an individual's characteristic and preferred ways of gathering, interpreting, organizing, and thinking about information.

Public address. These are types of academic courses involved in the rhetorical analysis of historical and contemporary public speeches.

Public speaking. This is a special form of communication, usually more formal, planned and organized than other communication exchanges and usually involves one speaker communicating to a large audience.

Transfer institutions. Transfer institutions are four-year universities and colleges to which community college students transfer community college credits in order to continue in college and obtain a four-year degree.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Women in Education

Women Students

Women are entering institutions of higher learning in increasing numbers. In 1991, 1,469 community colleges with a total of 5,651,900 students existed in the United States (Garcia, 1995). Nearly half of all undergraduates in the United States and almost half of all higher education faculty are at two-year colleges (Garcia). Collett and Serrano (1992) believe that previously under-represented groups in higher education will in the future consist of increasingly larger portions of the students in higher education. Among the various types of institutions of higher education, the community college boasts a large percentage of women. More than 50% of community college students in America are women (Townsend, 1995). Nicholas and Oliver (1994) believe that community colleges can respond to diversity issues better than any other segment of higher education. "To commit to diversity is to endorse the essence of the community college mission . . . ." (p. 37).

Women are increasingly found to be in the majority in degree-seeking courses. Although women were once in the minority in degree completion, women are now becoming the new majority in many associate-to-graduate degree programs (Long & Blanchard, 1991). By the mid-1980s, women were earning nearly 50%of the master's degrees and about 35% of doctoral degrees granted in the United States (Hensel, 1991).

The presence of women in community colleges is evident. The community college represents over 40% of the nation's 3,600 nonprofit higher education institutions (Townsend, 1995). Twombly (1993) asserts that a "majority of community college students are women, and approximately 60% of its part-time students are women" (p. 186). More than 50% of its students are women, close to half of its faculty are women, and over ten percent of community college presidents are female (Townsend). The community college has the highest percentage of women presidents of any other type of educational institution (p. 1). Tack and Patitu (1992) assert that as women become more visible in higher education, their numbers decrease as the responsibility of the position increases. A significant number of female community college faculty exist; however, only approximately 28% of college professors in the 1990s are women (Cooper, 1993). Women faculty members tend to cluster in more "feminine" disciplines such as English, nursing, home economics, social work, and fine arts (Tack & Patitu, p. 33). Statistics indicate that while the female student population is growing in North America, women are in the minority of tenured faculty (Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993). Thus, since female faculty tend to be concentrated in the lower ranks of the academic hierarchy, these women have less power in decision-making (p. 325).

Women students are becoming a part of higher education regardless of barriers to learning. Feiger (cited in Laden & Turner, 1995) discovered that women are still coming to college despite barriers. Their presence in the educational institutions may force these institutions to change (p. 20). The National Center for Education Statistics projects that by 2004, women will represent 58% of the student body (Snyder & Hoffman, 1993). Wilson, Stocking and Goldstein (1994) report that females enroll in more language and humanities/social science courses while males enroll in math courses. Overall, men selected classes because they either believed they would do well, or because they viewed the courses as being useful for a career or further schooling (p. 349). Females enrolled in courses because they perceived the subjects to be challenging, or they believed the courses would help them become more well rounded (p. 363).

Gender stereotypes exist in higher education, particularly the community college level. Twombly (1993) contends that occupational programs at many community colleges continue to gender stereotype. Sex bias affects the probability that women will stay in school (p. 188). Earle, Roach, and Fraser (cited in Ivy & Backlund, 1994) discovered that women drop out partly because of school activities which devalue women's overall achievement (p. 386).

Women Faculty

The gender of the instructor has an impact on student self-esteem, participation levels, interaction patterns in the classroom. The images of the faculty have been a strong influence on students' attitudes and beliefs (Opp & Smith, 1994). Faculty members are assumed to be role models for the formation of students' gender values (Street, Kromrey, & Kimmel, 1995). Women academics have a tendency toward more personalized interaction with colleagues (Simeone, cited in Austin & Baldwin, 1991). Chamberlain (1988), Hornig (1980), and Stecklein and Lorenz (cited in Hensel, 1991) conclude that women faculty tend to value time spent with students and, for this reason, students tend to spend more time with women teachers. Goodwin and Stevens (1993) suggest that female professors might place greater

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value or importance on enhancing students' self-esteem and on encouraging student interaction and participation in class. Statham, Richardson and Cook (1991) discovered that female teachers spent a larger portion of classtime than male teachers involving students in class discussion. "Female professors. . .appear to be more interested in seeking outside assistance in attempting to improve their teaching" (Goodwin & Stevens, p. 182).

Women faculty members appear to react differently inside and outside of the classroom compared to their male counterparts. Women faculty spend an excessive amount of time advising students outside of class than men (Hensel, 1991). Crawford and MacLeod (1990) report that women faculty members tend to encourage more participatory classroom climates than their male counterparts. Female professors tend to generate more classroom discussion, more interaction, and more give-and-take than male professors (Berry, 1988). However, research indicates that male and female students consider female faculty differently than male faculty (Ryan, 1989). For example, when the instructor is male, male student interactions are three times more frequent than female student interactions (Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996). When the instructor is female, male and female student interactions are nearly equal (p. 162). Pearson and West (1991) determined that male instructors received more questions from students than female instructors. Also, male students asked more questions than female students in classes taught by male instructors.

Male and female instructors tend to use different teaching strategies, yet maintain similar results in the classroom. Teacher-student interaction research indicates that "gender differences appeared and could be seen as positive examples of women using dissimilar but effective methods of accomplishing desired goals. Women professors seemed to take a more person-oriented, student-centered approach to teaching" (Statham, Richardson, & Cook, 1991, p. 137).

Gilbert and Evans (cited in Wood, 1994) discovered that female faculty are important role models for women students, because they provide concrete examples that women can hold positions of authority. Female professors, compared to their male counterparts, tend to be "less biased against female students, are more able to recognize females' contributions and intellectual talents, and are more generous in giving them academic and career encouragement" (Wood, 1994, p. 75).

Gender Research

Researchers and practitioners continue to be interested in the differences between male and female behavior most likely because gender is very simple to label and catagorize. Extensive gender research exists because biological sex provides the scholar with an obvious and stable category to research, and because gender is a conspicuous way in which individuals differ (Biernat, 1991). As Maccoby (1988) notes, all known languages include terminology which differentiates the roles assigned to women and men. Various scholars argue that gender is the most important aspect of personal identity in Western culture (Fox-Genovese, 1991). The traditional approach to the study of gender has been criticized because of its tendency to accentuate differences rather than similarities, its over-reliance on modest statistical significance, and its possible detrimental effects on women's issues (Smith, Morrison, & Wolf, 1994). Smith, et al.

propose that rather than relying on the term "gender differences" to explain how males and females communicate, the expression "gendered experience" should be used to avoid the emphasis on differences (p. 723).

Gender research maintains a reliance on the use of gender stereotypes to explain the emotional, behavioral, and communicative patterns of males and females. Although Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994) requested that gender research be conducted avoiding gender differences, most gender research relies on traditional sex-role stereotypes. "Gender stereotypes are likely to be activated and used automatically" (Biernat, 1991, p. 362). Heilman, Block, Martell and Simon (1989) believe the stereotype of expected behavior for women is deeply ingrained and resistant to change (cited in Hensel, 1991). The stereotypes of women consist of such traits as warmth, expressiveness, and nurturance, while the stereotypes of men involve concepts such as dynamism, assertiveness, competition, and competence (Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996). Men are thought to be instrumental and task-oriented, while women are believed to be emotional, gentle, and sensitive to others (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Tannen, 1990; Wood, 1994). Women are expected to be deferential, cooperative, and caring, whereas men are supposed to be competitive, assertive, and independent (Wood, 1994). Chodorow (1995) argues that gender cannot be seen apart from culture. Smith (cited in Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995) believes that in American culture, men are encouraged to be masculine and women are encouraged to be feminine. Yet as Biernat warns, gender stereotypes become more differentiated with age, "resulting in greater perceived overlap of the sexes" (p. 361).

Gender stereotypes often prevade the thinking of males and females often to the point of negating the actual behavior differences in favor of the sterotyped descriptions. Briton and Hall (1995) contend there are real differences between women and men; however, these differences may largely be exaggerated societal stereotypes as regards to expected behaviors and personal attributes (p. 90). "Reliance on sex-role stereotypes not only confuses research, it may also perpetuate the stereotypes" (Deaux & Major, 1987, p. 369). Wood (1994) summarizes that women and men communicate using dissimilar assumptions about the goals and strategies of communication. Biernat (1991) asserts that while young children make assumptions about individuals based on the sex of the target, adults, when faced with information that is inconsistent with gender stereotypes, seem to ignore the gender label and make inferences based on individuating information.

A return towards conservatism is prevalent among college students (Arliss, 1991). Research conducted in the 1970s showed age as negatively correlated with liberalism. Results indicated that college students had less traditional attitudes than their parents (p. 19). However, McKinney (1987) suggests that age is positively correlated with liberal thinking. This results in college students possessing stronger stereotypes than in the past (p. 356).

Public Speaking Styles

Individuals' effectiveness as public speakers have an effect on their level of success and communication competence. Rubin and Graham

(1988) and Rubin, Graham and Mignerey (1990) have concluded that positive associations between academic achievement and public speaking skills exist. Also, high levels of communication apprehension seem to contribute to low academic performance (Burleson & Samter, 1992, p. 156). Communication competence is one concept which relates to success. Lamude and Daniels (1990) use Rubin's definition of communication competence as an impression formed about another's communication ability (p. 43). Men and women evaluate one another in very different ways (Wheeless & Berryman-Fink, 1985). Pearson (1991) states that classroom public speaking has been analyzed by several researchers (Ivy, 1993; Pearson & Nelson, 1994; Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995).

Although gender differences regarding public presentation exist, men and women are alike in many ways. Both male and female speakers "share common goals and objectives when giving a speech, and they rely on the same verbal and nonverbal rhetorical strategies to inform and persuade others" (Kearney & Plax, 1996, p. 397). However, the way in which men and women communicate differs significantly. Kearney and Plax (1996) contend that masculine and feminine orientations pervade speaker style. Highly masculine speakers are likely to emphasize their mastery of a topic, prefer objective data, and communicate in a forceful and direct way. Feminine speakers connect with the audience through building rapport and empathy, seeking audience support for their views, and appealing to personal experiences (p. 57).

Distinct feminine and masculine communication styles exist. Kearney and Plax (1996) summarize research regarding the characteristics of feminine and masculine communication styles. In summary, feminine speakers are inclusive and stress collaboration while being attentive, responsive, and open to the audience. Feminine speakers also appeal to feelings and personal experiences and have a less formal speaking style evidenced by using everyday phrases in their speeches. Feminine speakers show interest in the audience through frequent use of smiling and nodding, gesturing, and eye contact. The masculine communication style is described as forceful, direct, and assertive with the masculine speaker using a loud, declamatory voice and gestures that stress power and status. Control and authority are emphasized, with masculine speakers stressing status differences and wanting center stage (p. 403).

Language

Language and gender research relies on the strength of stereotypes and clichés about each sex. The perceptions of each sex hold more truth than the actual behaviors (Biernat, 1991). Reviews of literature concerning gender differences and language usage reveal a prevalence of inconsistent findings and methodological weaknesses (Simkins-Bullock & Wildman, 1991). Pearson, West and Turner (1995) state that much of the information about male and female language differences is based on introspection and personal observation (p. 96). Nevertheless, despite some of the faults of gender research, conclusions about male and female communication styles have been made. Tannen (1990) has found that males tend to use the communication process to control, whereas females use the communication process to negotiate.

Evidence supports the belief that a feminine style of communication exists. Lakoff (cited in Arliss, 1991) was one of the first scholars to determine sex differences in language use. Lakoff termed "women's language" as a verbal style that reflects female powerlessness and is characterized by hedges, tag questions, empty adjectives, and polite forms of words (Ferber, 1995, p. 128). "Women's language shows up in all levels of the grammar of English" (Lakoff, 1975, p. 8). Lakoff's work supports the dominance/deficit model which claims that women's language is a reflection of their inferior status in society (Stewart, et al., 1996). However, Simkins-Bullock and Wildman (1991) assert there is no one definition of "women's language". More recent research has determined that this speech style reflects self-consciousness and discomfort with a task (Kearney & Plax, 1996). This style of speech is used by both sexes. Nevertheless, research supports the belief that women's speech is closer to the norm of standard speech than men's, especially in formal situations (Pearson, et al., 1995).

Scholars have developed explanations to account for these gender differences. Simkins-Bullock and Wildman (1991) contend that three theories explaining gender differences in language usage exist. The first theory consists of Lakoff's belief of women's style of language usage. Lakoff (1975) believes the communication style of women is characterized by tentative, unsure and deferential patterns of speech, whereas the communication style of men is characterized by stronger, more direct patterns of speech. The second theory focuses on the differences in intended purpose or function between men and women. According to this position, women are perceived to operate on a socio-emotional level and men on a task or instrumental level (Eakins & Eakins, cited in Simkins-Bullock & Wildman, 1991). The third theory considers the power or status differences rather than gender differences. Researchers who support this perspective (Kennedy & Camden, cited in Simkins-Bullock & Wildman, 1991) believe that language is used differently in relation to real or perceived power or authority. Issues such as turn-taking, interruption pattern, topic control, and amount of talk are analyzed through the use of this research model (p. 152).

Wood (1994) contends that women's speech shows support for others and is of a personal and concrete style. Women's conversations involve details, personal disclosures, anecdotes, and concrete reasoning (p. 142). Wood further asserts that men's talk possesses characteristics such as exerting control, preserving independence, and enhancing status. Compared to women, men tend to talk more abstractly, using general terms and avoiding personal feelings (p. 143).

Tentative language

The tentative language style has been attributed to the feminine form of communication. Stewart, et al. (1996) define deferential language as characterized by "the use of tag questions, qualifiers, hedges, and other forms of speech stereotypically associated with 'women's language'" (p. 57). As defined by Lakoff (1975), the term "female register" has been used to identify these female language characteristics (Arliss, 1991). Penelope (1990) states that while there have been some contradictory findings about women's style of language, the stereotype of using tentative language is still ascribed to women, even though they may not be demonstrating this style.

Expletives and profanity

The use of expletives and profanity has long been considered a man's behavior. Expletives have been associated with strength and power and have been defined as masculine in Western cultures (De Klerk, 1991). An expletive is an exclamation which is a remark followed by an exclamation point in writing (Arliss, 1991). De Klerk believes that expletives have been used to distinguish men from women in certain cultures. The expletives traditionally used by men are stronger sounding and usually include profanity (p. 157). Penelope (1990) explains that men may use "the slang of the sexual slurs," while women in modern society are reminded that it is not appropriate to use sexual slurs. However, while men are permitted to use such language, "They rarely exhibit the full range of it in the company of women" (p. 46).

Female speech is characterized by the lack of profanity and expletive use. Women have been socialized to be verbally less aggressive and have been perceived as using language that is weak and powerless and devoid of expletives (Penelope, 1990, p. 158). Adult males are expected to use highly intense language, including expletives. By contrast, when females used them, they were seen in violation of norm expectations (Penelope). Pearson, et al., (1995) report that using profanity in a classroom speech results in negative evaluations from the audience for both men and women. For instance, women are rated lower for using excretory profanity and men for sexual profanity (Pearson, et al., 1995). Arliss (1991) states that when women disapprove of the use of expletives, men believe that the women do not have a sense of humor or do not fit in with the group. Some women report that they are feeling increasingly free to utter profanities and tell sexual jokes, particularly to women audiences (p. 175).

Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication, while being the most pervasive form of communication also includes most of the differences between men and women. Nonverbal communication includes all communication except that which involves the use of words (DeVito, 1994). In 1970, Birdwhistell noted that nonverbal communication conveys up to 65 percent of the message (cited in Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996). Although nonverbal communication is very important in any communication situation, women frequently use nonverbal communication to invite others into the conversation, whereas men use nonverbal communication to discourage others from speaking (Wood, 1994). Argyle and Williams (cited in Hickson & Stacks, 1993) determined that females generally credit nonverbal actions as feedback from themselves, whereas males tend to ascribe nonverbal actions to others or to the environment. Wood (1994) cites research which indicates that men are encouraged to assert themselves in public, and women are taught to listen, react, and respond. Generally, men engage in more nonverbal efforts to exert control than women. For example, men discourage others from talking by interrupting and responding with minimum and delayed cues (Tannen, 1990).

Gender researchers believe that gender differences in nonverbal communication are indicative of Western culture. Expectations for women in American culture are characterized by reaction, whereas expectations for men are characterized by action (Richmond, McCroskey,

& Payne, 1991). Western culture also differentiates between feminine and masculine cultures. In general, women make more eye contact, give more vocal and verbal feedback, and use head nodding and facial expressions to signal interest (Montgomery, 1988). Masculine culture, on the other hand, tends to have a more instrumental orientation, focusing on emotional control and de-emphasizing responsiveness (Wood, 1996).

Briton and Hall (1995) reported that women were perceived by both male and female participants to be more fluent, skilled, and involved communicators. Men were perceived as more dysfluent, less skilled, restless, and loud (p. 87). Wagner, Buck and Winterbotham (1993) discovered that women are better encoders of emotions such as fear, anger, and disgust, while men are slightly better encoders of guilt.

Appearance

In any public context, the appearance of the speaker affects the audience's perception of that individual. Hickson and Stacks (1993) report that physical appearance has a persuasive effect on both sexes. Eakins and Eakins (cited in Richmond, McCroskey, & Payne, 1991) found that regardless of the gender of speakers, attractive people are rated higher on the character dimension of credibility than unattractive people. Raines, Hechtman and Rosenthal (1990) report that for women attractiveness is a product of both the face and the body, while male attractiveness is attributed to the face alone.

Gestures and Facial Expressions

Culture affects the way men and women communicate through the use of gestures and facial expressions. Differences in how men and women use gestures have been attributed to the degree of dominance or submission within the communication situation (Pearson et al., 1995). Masculine cultures emphasize emotional control and independence. Therefore, men are less likely than women to use nonverbal behavior that reveals how they feel (Wood, 1996). However, values reflecting feminine culture mandate that women use more open nonverbal communication (p. 126). For example, women tend to gesture more than men in approval-seeking situations (Hickson & Stacks, 1993).

Smiling is one type of facial expression reflecting gender differences. Women smile more than men, are more likely to return smiles, and tend to be attracted to people who smile (Stewart, et al., 1996). Borisoff and Merrill (1992) believe that only dominant members of a hierarchy are less likely to smile and withhold verbal and nonverbal expressions of emotions (p. 51). Wood (1994) notes that, in general, women demonstrate their feminine socialization by smiling even whey they are not genuinely happy. Men tend to smile to represent a pleasant internal state, while women smile to promote pleasantness in their communication with others (Arliss, 1991). Arliss believes that in public settings, women are more likely to smile at men particularly when exchanging greetings.

Deutsch, LeBaron and Fryer (1987) found that non-smiling women were perceived as less happy, less carefree, and less relaxed than non-smiling men. Borisoff and Merrill (1992) believe that smiling may be indicative of nervousness. Women will smile and laugh more than men, and women will smile to mask or hide anxiety or nervousness (Richmond, McCroskey, & Payne, 1991, p. 236). Subordinates are expected to smile to superiors; therefore, the smile may become feigned. However, research suggests that both genders smile more when seeking approval (Richmond, et al., 1991).

Posture and body movement

Men use their body movements to convey dominance while women use postural cues to express subservience. Kinesics refers to behaviors such as posture, gesture, and facial expression (Richmond, et al., 1991, pg. 52). Females communicate passivity and dependence through their kinesic behavior, whereas males communicate authority and independence (Hickson & Stacks, 1993). Body cues communicate information indicative of relaxation and tension, while head cues appear to communicate information characteristic of pleasantness and unpleasantness (Knapp & Hall, 1992). Posture and body carriage appears to be related to status or perceived status. Relaxed posture is most likely a reflection of a perceived higher status among men, because these high status men are more relaxed than their low-ranking counterparts (Stewart, et al., 1996).

Voice

Men use their voice to assert their power, whereas women use their voice to demonstrate their likability. Buck (1984) indicates that the voice tends to be more indicative of emotion than the face. "Paralinguistics includes all vocal cues in the stream of spoken utterances except the words themselves" (Richmond, et al., 1991, p. 95). Vocal cues incorporate pitch, rate, inflection, volume, quality, and enunciation (Pearson, et al., 1995). Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall (1989) believe that the most obvious gender difference in vocalic behavior is the frequency or pitch of the voice. Vocally, women are viewed in terms of their sociability, and men are perceived in terms of emotional and physical power (Hickson & Stacks, 1993). Women use an "excited" speech pitch more than men do (Hickson & Stacks, 1993). Markel, Prebor & Brandt believe men and women speak more loudly to men (cited in Knapp & Hall, 1992). People's voices on television indicated that men were spoken to more dominantly and unpleasantly than women, by both men and women (Hall & Braunwald, 1981).

Reasons for gender differences in nonverbal communication

An extensive review of 75 studies of gender differences and nonverbal communication and 50 studies in nonverbal decoding skills determined that women were better decoders of nonverbal cues than men (Hall, 1984). Three reasons for these gender differences exist. First, theorists believe that women's strength in decoding nonverbal behaviors stems from their subordinate status. Hall labels this theory as the oppression hypothesis (cited in Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996). Proponents of this theory believe that in order for women to survive social and physical oppression, they must become better interpreters of the nonverbal messages around them (Stewart, et al., p. 74). Wood (1994) cites studies which reflect the attitude that women's nonverbal skills are linked to gender-differentiated power within our society (Hall, 1979; Miller, 1986; Tavris, 1992). Yet, Hall (1979) believes that women are more skilled because they are more empathic and have more feminine attributes.

Second, other researchers believe women's nonverbal skills can be attributed to their greater tendency toward involvement with others (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992). Women know the social rules governing communication better than men (Noller, 1986). Third, research supports the belief that women have the advantage in encoding and decoding nonverbal behaviors, because they are given more opportunities to practice their sensitivity in occupations which are considered feminine (Stewart, et al., 1996). Because of these stereotypes, women may be expected to become more nonverbally sensitive (p. 75). Wood (1994) contends that women have been socialized to be more attentive to feelings.

Females appear to be better at nonverbal decoding. Noller (1986) believes that females are better decoders because they know; (a) the general roles governing interpersonal relationships, (b) the decoding rules appropriate to situations, and (c) the specific rules governing the use of nonverbal cues in particular (p. 30). Studies reported in Richmond, et al., (1991) indicate that females report higher needs for inclusion, affiliation, and affection and, therefore, look for cues which fulfill those needs.

The standpoint theory provides another explanation of why male and female differences occur (Wood, 1996a). A standpoint refers to an individual's point of view as it is influenced by social circumstances (p. 81). From this perspective, men and women, as social groups, have different standpoints (Tarvis, 1992). Research cited in Luttrell (1993) indicates that women have an advantage in viewing the world holistically, based on their particular "standpoint."

Campbell provides another explanation of nonverbal gender differences (cited in Wood, 1994). Campbell concluded that in relation to nonverbal communication, women had to decide if they wanted to be perceived as feminine or effective. Women who possess the qualities considered worthy in our society are judged unfeminine, while women who do not embody these qualities are judged to be more feminine, but ineffective (Wood, 1994). Stereotypically masculine traits are viewed more positively than stereotypically feminine attributes (Basow, 1992). Eckman, Friesen and Ellsworth (cited in Wood, 1996a) believe that the feminine stereotype allows for a wider range of emotional and negative expressions.

Influence and Persuasion

One strategy for influencing a population is through the use of power. Men tend to use power to persuade audiences, whereas women use less powerful persuasive strategies. Research supports the assumption that men possess higher status than women (Berger, Wagner, & Zelditch, 1985; Eagly, 1987). Popular beliefs abound concerning women's great influenceability, yet research on this topic has been incomplete (Roberts & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1994). Gender differences in influenceability and power have been linked to the lower status of women in American culture (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995). Research cited by Serbin, Zelkowitz, Doyle, Gold and Wheaton (1990) explains that women as a group are more compliant. When power needs to be exerted, men reported using masculine and feminine strategies equally as often, whereas women reported using feminine strategies more than masculine ones (Sagrestano, 1992, p. 441). Sagrestano summarized that men have more power and resources in society and tend to be more effective than women when using power (p. 445). Individuals use stronger strategies with men and weaker ones with women, while men elicit weak influence strategies from others (Carli, 1989). Also, research indicates that gender differences exist in the way men and women are oriented toward interpersonal harmony and cooperation

(Roberts & Nolen-Hoeksema, p. 224). For example, when women use displays of dominance, the displays may indicate that women are nervous or uneasy displaying the dominant stance (Burgoon, Buller, & Woodall, 1989).

Argumentativeness is defined as "a stable trait that predisposes an individual in communication situations to advocate positions on controversial issues and to attack verbally the positions that other people take on these issues" (Infante, 1982). The concept of argumentative behavior is associated with communication competence. Research indicates that males score higher than females in argumentativeness (Nicotera & Rancer, 1994).

Self-Evaluation

When individuals evaluate themselves, women tend to rate themselves more negatively than men. Public speaking classes often require students to evaluate their performance in a speaking situation (Kearney & Plax, 1996). These self-evaluations may also reflect information gathered from viewing a video of the presentation. Daubman, Heatherington, and Ahn (1992) found that women tend to provide lower estimates of their performance ability than men, even when their actual performance is equivalent to men's (p. 197). These researchers concluded that women rated themselves lower, not because of low self-confidence, but because women are motivated by a desire for interpersonal harmony. Roberts and Nolen-Hoeksema (1994) report that women make more realistic estimates of their abilities than men. Research examining gender differences in self-ratings have indicated that men evaluate their abilities more highly than women throughout their academic career (Smith, Morrison & Wolf, 1994). Yet, Lundeberg, Fox and Puncochar (1994) report that in their study, both men and women were more confident in their responses than warranted by their performance, leading to the notion that women may not have lower confidence than men (p. 119).

Men and women may not respond in the same way after receiving unsolicited help from an evaluator (Daubman & Lehman, 1993). Men have a tendency to handicap themselves (e.g., lack of effort) when they are uncertain of success and as a way to protect their self-esteem (Higgins, Snyder, & Verglas, 1990). Individuals who receive unsolicited help may feel threatened by the giver of the help, because it implies inferiority or inadequacy on their part (Nadler & Fisher, 1986). Previous studies (Ames & Lau, 1982; Nadler & Porat, 1978) have found that both male and female subjects are more likely to seek help, if the need for help can be attributed to lack of effort or external factors (Daubman & Lehman, p. 697).

Roberts (1991) reveals that women's self-evaluations were more influenced than men's by feedback from others. The common stereotype of women is that they look to others for evidence of their competence and are more sensitive to evaluations from others (Roberts & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1994). Explanations for this include the following: (a) women may be more likely to approach evaluation situations as opportunities to learn about their behaviors, and (b) women's performance estimates may be influenced by standards set by others (p. 224). When subjects received help on a task which they performed poorly, men who received help worked less hard and performed more poorly on a subsequent task than those who did not receive help. However, women who received help performed better on a subsequent task than women who did not receive help (Daubman & Lehman, 1993). Women, but not men who received help, rated their ability level as more important in determining their performance. Women who did not receive help did not give their ability level the same rating (p. 704).

Evaluation

Research indicates that instructors evaluate male and female students differently. Courses in public speaking include the evaluation of speeches (DeVito, 1994). Studies involving girls and boys as subjects conclude that while boys receive more criticism than girls, "this criticism is most often directed toward nonintellectual qualities such as misconduct or low motivation" (Brophy & Good, cited in Roberts & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1994, p. 236). Ivy states that men are rated as more dynamic speakers than women, while female speakers receive higher evaluations on aesthetic quality (cited in Pearson, et al., 1995, p. 208). Results indicate that gender may color teachers' perceptions of student achievement (Bennett, Gottesman, Rock, & Cerullo, 1993).

A breadth of research exposing the gender differences in male and female faculty members' evaluations exists (Basow & Silberg, 1987; Hutchinson & Beadle, 1992). Teacher-effectiveness research suggests that characteristics of effective teaching can be grouped according to stereotypically masculine and stereotypically feminine behaviors (Stewart, et al., 1996). Bray and Howard (cited in Stewart, et al., 1996) discovered that androgynous teachers scored higher than stereotypically masculine or stereotypically feminine teachers. A summary of the research indicates that women faculty were perceived as having more warmth, yet received lower ratings on interpersonal contact (Stewart, et al., 1996). "Less favorable ratings of women are most likely to occur when women are seen as not fitting gender stereotypes" (Basow & Silberg, 1987, p. 312). Sandler (1991) believes that a case can be made which shows that students perceive female faculty less favorably than they do male faculty.

Evidence suggests that male faculty members are evaluated more highly than female faculty members. Wilson and Doyle (cited in Goodwin & Stevens, 1993) state that male professors tend to receive significantly higher ratings on clarity of presentation than do female professors. Yet, students report that classes taught by male teachers are more difficult (Stewart, et al., 1996). Roach (1991) states that students rate male instructors more favorably than female instructors. Female professors are perceived as less competent and knowledgeable than male professors, due to increased student participation in the classroom of female professors (Hutchinson & Beadle, 1992, p. 407). Sandler (1991) believes this assumption may arise because the "male model" of teaching is one in which the teacher is a wise authority with the student as passive learner.

Nadler and Nadler (1990) found that male instructors are perceived to be dominant, whereas female instructors are perceived as supportive. Roach (1991) cites research indicating that when male instructors were expressive in their teaching behavior, they were evaluated more positively, yet non-expressiveness proved to be the best strategy for female faculty. However, Statham, Richardson and Cook (1991) discovered that the time female teachers spent in soliciting student responses was positively associated with their ratings on likability. Male professors with the same behavioral trait were not positively correlated with likability (Statham, et al., 1991). Kaschak (cited in Goodwin & Stevens, 1993) reports that male students consistently favored male professors, but female students rated male and female professors similarly.

Students' expectations towards their instuctors differ whether the instructor is male or female. Students tended to demand a higher level of formal class preparation from women faculty (Markham, 1988). Male students rated male faculty higher than female faculty (Goodwin & Stevens, 1993, p. 167). Research reported in Freeman (1994) suggests that students prefer instructors who are androgynous, that is, they contain both feminine and masculine personality attributes (p. 627). Jordan, McGreal and Wheeless (1990) contend that "students are more concerned with how teachers teach than if they are a man or a woman" (p. 51). Freeman's 1994 study reflects the same outcome. Results indicate that the instructor's gender role may be more important than the sex of the instructor or student (p. 629). Statham, et al., (1991) demonstrate that when students were asked to complete an eleven-item questionnaire, the researchers found they did not evaluate female and male teachers differently.

Listening

While public speaking course curriculum materials emphasize the role of the speaker, the audience is an important component of the entire speech situation (DeVito, 1994). Male speakers are listened to more intently than are female speakers. Markham (1988) indicates that students listened more attentively to male speakers rather than female speakers. When women are listening to a speaker, they tend to show more listener-response cues and display more appreciation cues (Marche

& Peterson, 1993a). Women use vocalizers along with nonverbal behaviors such as head nodding to show interest far more than males (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992). Tannen (1990) supports the belief that women use more assent terms, such as "yeah," "right," and "uh-huh." Wood (1996a) concurs by stating that women have been socialized to be responsive and expressive and tend to make more comments such as "um hum," and "yeah." However, research exists which supports the claim that men use more token words to signal interest, reflected in such sayings as "really?," "oh," and "is that so?" (Tannen. 1990).

Women's speech encourages additional attempts at communication, whereas men's speech dissuades future communication. Tannen (1990) suggests that men and women have different patterns of language and conversation. For example, Tannen asserts that women make more "listening noises" to signal interest in the speaker. Females tend to defer to males in mixed group meetings (Hensel, 1991). Research summarized by Wood (1994) suggests that women's talk displays more responsiveness by encouraging elaboration of what was said. In contrast, men use delayed minimal responses (Arliss, 1991). For example, at the end of a speaker's response, men tend to offer a minimal response cue, after a brief pause (p. 66). Arliss believes that the minimal response may display disinterest. Females seldom display the minimal response cue (Zimmerman & West, 1975).

Classroom Participation and Gender Inequity

Evidence appears to suggest that classrooms are not environments where male and female students are treated in an equitable manner. The curricular content and class interaction patterns cause unequal treatment in the classroom whereby female students solicit and receive lesser amounts of communication than male students. Despite a number of studies and reports on the classroom climate for women, according to Blum (1991) many equity issues raised in those reports have not yet been resolved. Both male and female faculty may communicate to their students limiting preconceptions about appropriate and expected behaviors, abilities, and classroom interaction patterns. Much research (Gerlach & Hart, 1992; Karabenick & Sharma, 1994; Sadker & Sadker, 1992) has been reported in academic journals on student questioning in the classroom. Van der Meij (1988) believes that most studies on question-asking in the classroom have been conducted from a social-psychological perspective, including the biological sex of the student and the biological sex of the instructor. Previous research studies (Darling, 1989; Gall, 1984; Good, Slavings, & Mason, 1988) have addressed such issues as type of questions, number of questions, nature of the questions, and type of students who ask questions. Additional research (Hutchinson & Beadle, 1992; Sandler, 1991; Street, Kromrey, & Kimmel, 1995) has addressed the biological sex and personality of the instructor. A disproportionate emphasis on teacher questioning, rather than student questioning behavior exists in educational literature (Daly, Kreiser & Roghaar, 1994).

A variety of reasons exist as to why student questioning behavior in the classroom needs to be addressed regarding gender-fair instructional practices. Gerlach and Hart (1992) cite evidence from conversations with faculty members that teachers do not fully realize the importance of sex-fair language. Without understanding the effects of gender on learning outcomes, professors often do not initiate strategies to combat the problem (p. 49).

Research increasingly indicates that curricular content, class interaction patterns, and classroom climate all perpetuate unequal treatment in the classroom (Avery & Walker, 1993). Research suggests that men and women do not have the same experiences in the classroom (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986). Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994) believe that even with the changes in gender sensitivity over the last 20 years, the college experience is still a gendered one (p. 723). Instructional scholars believe that higher education is still strongly influenced by the "dominant intellectual ethos of our time," resulting in a better college experience for the male majority (Cooper, 1993, p. 122). Tannen (1991) argues that since classroom climates so often use masculine communication styles, men are more comfortable with learning and therefore find learning easier.

Various studies (Aitken & Neer, 1991; Gerlach & Hart, 1992; Kelly, 1991; Pearson & West, 1991) indicate that when identical behavior is demonstrated by male and female students, the female students' behaviors are devalued. For example, researchers (Crawford & MacLeod, 1990; Daly, Kreiser, & Roghaar, 1994) continue to suggest that males ask more questions and receive more responses from professors than female students. Often-quoted research (Gerlach & Hart, 1992) supports that female students do not interact in class at the same levels as male students.

Student Questioning Behavior in the Classroom

Student questioning behavior is one of the components of the classroom climate which most notably affects student achievement rates. Salend & Lutz maintain classroom teachers identify student question-asking as critical to successful participation in the educational setting (cited in Pearson & West, 1991). Much research has been generated regarding the impact of student questioning behavior on student success in school, and the gender inequities inherent in this form of classroom participation (Darling, 1989; Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson 1987; Pearson & West, 1991; Van der Meij, 1988). Gall suggests that the increased number of questions posed by teachers is related to an increase in levels of achievement by students (cited in Pearson & West). Evidence exists which suggests that differences among schools in this regard are quite notable and are associated with different levels of student achievement (Good, et al., 1987). Question-asking can be thought of as a type of active learning strategy which signifies student involvement (Karabenick & Sharma, 1994).

Research indicates that approximately 70% of the average school-day interaction is filled by student question-asking (Daly, Kreiser, & Roghaar, 1994). Student participation rates were greater in classrooms in which the students perceived the teacher to be asking "real" questions or questions for which the instructor had a real need to know the answer (Morine-Dershimer & Tenenberg, 1981).

Female Questioning Behavior

From kindergarten to college, female students ask less questions in the classroom than male students. In higher grades, females' questioning rates drop below those of males (Good, Slavings, Harel & Emerson, 1987). "Studies at the college and university level indicate that women students' communication patterns are different from mens' communication patterns in the same classroom and with the same faculty" (Gerlach & Hart, 1992, p. 50). Wood (1994) concludes that female students' contributions are interrupted, ignored, or dismissed more often than those of males. Pearson and West (1991) examined 15 college classrooms and determined that female students asked fewer questions than male students in courses taught by male instructors. Good, et al., (1987) report that as early as kindergarten, females asked two and one-half times fewer questions than males. Morris and Handley (1985) determined from a two-year study that seventh-grade females initiated approximately 41% of the interaction with the teachers. The rate of interaction decreased to 30% by the eighth grade (p. 52).

In general, questioning behavior appears to diminish in higher levels of learning. Male and female high school seniors ask less than 15% of all questions in their classrooms (Bridges, 1988). Good, Slavings, Harel and Emerson (1987) determined that question asking is more evenly distributed by sex of students in the elementary classroom, whereas in later academic years, patterns of student question asking by sex are more sharply differentiated. Evidence supports the claim that few questions are asked in a typical college classroom because many students believe that teachers prefer students who remain silent (Karabenick & Sharma, 1994).

Male Questioning Behavior

Men ask more questions in the classroom and are more apt to interrupt professors and other students than women. Male students often dominate classroom talk (Crawford & MacLeod, 1990; Gerlach & Hart, 1992). Hall and Sandler maintain the interactions between male students and teachers last longer (cited in Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996). Ivy and Backlund (1994) indicate that low-achieving and high-achieving male students alike received more praise and attention than high-achieving female students.

"One reason that [males] get more attention is that they grab it. They are eight times more likely than [females] to call out answers and questions" (Sadker & Sadker, 1992, p. 50). Hutchinson and Beadle (1992) state that students with masculine styles of interaction tend to participate more frequently in classroom discussions.

Two reasons exist for the inequity of student questioning behavior. First, Daly, Kreiser and Roghaar (1994) revealed that males were more comfortable with question-asking in the classroom. Males are at a "distinct educational advantage in the classroom," because they are comfortable asking questions (p. 36). Arliss (1991) contends that speakers of both genders often ask questions not to seek information, but to secure attention. Second, men interpret questions as simple requests for information, whereas women use questions to help maintain the conversation (Coates, 1986). Brooks (cited in Ivy & Backlund, 1994) demonstrates that men interrupt professors and other students significantly more often than women, particularly in female-taught classes.

Role of the Instructor in Student Questioning Behavior

Various instructor communication behaviors, such as encouragement, supportiveness, and indifference, affect student achievement and classroom satisfaction. Ivy and Backlund (1994) and Wood (1994) indicate that faculty members do not realize their biological sex may affect student question-asking. Researchers have studied how teachers and students learn the rules of classroom participation (Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987). Certain instructor characteristics play important roles in participation rates in the classroom (West, 1991). Potter and Emmanuel (1990) suggest that the communication style of the instructor is related to student achievement and satisfaction. Instructors direct approximately two questions per minute to students in their classrooms (Sadker & Sadker, 1992). Therefore, "teacher behavior may have a direct effect on student performance, but students must perceive and interpret differential teacher behavior if it is to affect their motivation and effort" (Good, et al., 1987, p. 181). Although instructors may be aware of their impact on student questioning behavior, after asking a question teachers typically wait only nine-tenths of a second for a student to respond (Sadker & Sadker, 1992).

Encouragement from teachers is related to increases in questioning by students in the classroom (Aitken & Neer, 1991). Schwager and Newman (cited in Karabenick & Sharma 1994) found a relationship between perceived teacher encouragement and student questioning behavior in elementary school children. Karabenick and Sharma did not find this relationship in college students. Negative teacher reactions, including indifference, can affect the rate of student questioning (Karabenick & Sharma, p. 90). For example, while instructors praise males for academic interests and achievements, instructors offer more support to female students for being quiet and compliant (Wood, 1994, p. 215).

Pearson and West (1991) argue that "male teachers may be more responsible for differential treatment of students than female teachers" (p. 25). Allen and Niss (1990) report that professors of both sexes were more rewarding when addressing men than women.

Studies analyzing classroom interaction patterns report that from grade school to graduate school teachers are more likely to interact with white male students (Sadker & Sadker, 1992). However, Crawford and MacLeod (1990) indicate the opposite is true. Evidence supports the observation that male instructors elicit less questioning by students, while female instructors elicit more (p. 121). Yet, most students in small-to-moderate size classrooms perceive their teachers as being very supportive of student questioning, particularly while the teacher is presenting material (Karabenick & Sharma, 1994).

Male students receive more rewards, are taken more seriously, and are called on by faculty members more than female students. Evidence exists which indicates that teachers ask more questions of students believed to be high achievers than those they feel are low achievers (Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987). Instructors reward male students for accomplishments, assertions, and dominance in the classroom (Sadker & Sadker, 1986). Wood (1994) indicates that teachers give male students more individualized instruction and time than female students. Male students are taken more seriously and regarded more favorably than female students (p. 218). In addition, faculty call on male students more often and extend and pursue comments by male students more than those of female students (p. 218). From preschool through graduate education, teachers pay more attention to male students (Wood).

Teachers maintain expectations of their students' behavior in the classroom. Stewart, et al., (1996) indicate that at all educational levels, teachers communicate gender expectations in six major ways. First, teachers call on male students more often than female students.

Cooper (1993) concurs by stating that faculty members call on male students more often. Second, teachers coach male students to help them develop more thorough responses. Third, teachers communicate gender stereotypes by waiting longer for males to answer a question than for females, before going on to another student. Fourth, female students are more often asked questions which require factual information, while male students are asked questions which demand critical thinking or personal evaluation. For example, teachers ask male students a higher proportion of critical-thinking-type questions, thereby encouraging problem-solving behaviors in males (Stewart, et al., p. 161). Fifth, teachers respond more extensively to male students' comments than to females' comments. Sixth, teachers may communicate gender stereotypes unconsciously by the use of sexist language (Stewart, et al., 1996, pp. 157-158). Hall and Sandler (1982) conclude that women are not given the same opportunity as men to express themselves in the average college classroom.

Students believe female instructors create classrooms which enhance self-esteem, encourage student interaction, and require discussion. Bennett suggests female and male students have gender-related expectations for their professors (cited in Sandler, 1991). Treichler and Kramarae (cited in Pearson & West, 1991) discovered that students view classes taught by females as more discussion-oriented. Research in the 1970s and more recently has indicated that in classes taught by women, there is more input by students, more questions asked by teachers and students, more feedback, and more overall student interaction (Macke, Richardson, & Cook, cited in Ivy & Backlund, 1994).

Goodwin and Stevens (1993) suggest that female instructors may place greater value on enhancing students' self-esteem and in encouraging student interaction in class. Statham, Richardson and Cook (1991) discovered that female teachers spend a larger portion of classtime than male teachers involving students in class discussion. Female instructors tend to generate more discussion, more interaction, and more give-and-take than male professors (Berry, cited in Goodwin & Stevens, 1993).

While research supports the belief that a professor's style of communication influences the participation rates of students (Pearson & West, 1991), Hutchinson and Beadle (1992) argue that a student's increase or decrease in classroom communication may result from a "match" or "mismatch" of communication styles. For example, Pearson and West (1991) report that students who ask questions tend to be those who evaluate themselves as more "masculine," independent, and self-confident. If the professor maintains a self-confident and independent communication style, those students possessing this style will be more apt to excel in the classroom.

Hutchinson and Beadle (1992) suggest that faculty members follow four rules to help ensure equitable participation in the classroom. First, instructors should allow students to initiate conversations. Second, educators should give attention not only to students who are speaking but also to students who are listening. Third, instructors should consider how they informally interact with students. Fourth, educators should examine their own communication style to become aware of biases against certain participation strategies used by students (p. 417). Establishing a positive and supportive climate is important in developing question-asking behavior in students of both sexes (Pearson & West, 1991).

Learning Styles

One of the most significant challenges facing instructors is to recognize learning differences in their students. The more diverse the student population becomes, the greater the variability in learning styles within the classroom (Anderson & Adams, 1992). A three-year study by Harvard Assessment Seminars indicated that "men and women often approach their studies with sharply different values" (Fiske, 1990, p. B8). The ongoing change in classroom demographics will perpetuate the need for faculty to understand different learning styles and accommodate those styles by appropriately using a variety of teaching methodologies (Anderson & Adams, 1992).

An analytical mode of learning permeates the college classroom. For many years it has been assumed that intuitive knowledge is more primitive, and possibly less valuable, than the objective method of knowing (Anderson & Adams, 1992). Therefore, a more analytical style matches most school environments, while a relational style conflicts with the traditional school climate (p. 20). McKeachie (1994) states that since most faculty members are European-American males and have been socialized through their culture, the academic community tends to value analytic structures and abstract approaches. Anderson and Adams concur with McKeachie by stating that white, middle-class males have traditionally been the dominant group in the undergraduate population.

Assessments of students' learning styles have been reported in the literature for some time (Fuhrmann & Grasha, 1983; Joyce & Weil, 1986; Kolb, 1976). Research into the area of learning styles is partially inconclusive, because most studies have been conducted from a Western, white male, middle-class perspective (Gilligan, 1982). Prominent theories of moral and cognitive development have been taught in classrooms using studies based solely on male students (Wood, 1994). More recently, however, the gender of the learner has been considered an important variable in the understanding of learning styles (Wood & Lenze, 1991).

Women's ways of knowing sharply contrasts from men's ways of knowing. Gilligan suggests that men and women perceive social reality in different ways (cited in Anderson & Adams, 1992). Gilligan concludes that women students prefer affiliation rather than separation, an identity oriented toward relationships rather than autonomy, and a preference for collaborative interaction rather than competitive achievement. Gilligan states that while females view relationships in terms of a web, males see relationships in terms of a hierarchy. According to Gilligan, femininity perpetuates an ethic of care, which is believed to be undervalued in the public arena. Gilligan believes men, on the other hand, operate through an ethic of objectivity (cited in Lay, 1989). Men's ways of knowing have been associated with preferring instrumental reason and abstract rules, gaining mastery over nature, and dominating others (Luttrell, 1993). Kashima, et al. (1995) describe Gilligan's concept of the separate self as predominantly a male perspective. Their concept of female identity is one of "self in relationships." Gilligan believes that misunderstandings occur because of these different moral orientations that lead to different approaches to decision making (Sullivan, 1993).

Definition of Learning Styles

The particular learning styles of individuals affect the way they collect and process information. The term "learning style" refers in general to an individual's "characteristic and preferred ways of gathering, interpreting, organizing, and thinking about information" (Davis, 1993, p. 185). Knowledge of a person's cognitive processing competencies has implications for instruction (Warrick & Maglieri, 1993). Further, the issues of teaching methods, learning tasks, assessment demands, and workload amounts have been shown to affect students' approaches to learning (Kember & Gow, 1994). Thus, over the years, various definitions of learning styles and cognitive learning preferences have been developed (R. Dunn, 1993). At least sixteen models of learning have been developed, with as many as twenty cognitive dimensions (Claxton & Murrell, 1987). Claxton and Murrell organized the models into four categories, which can be interpreted as analogous to an onion: the personality model becomes the core, with the remaining three models becoming the layers.

The first model, the "personality model" refers to personality traits such as extroversion or introversion (Claxton & Murrell, 1987). The second model, "information-processing" deals with how people process information. The third model, the "social-interaction model" reflects how individuals interact in the classroom. The fourth model, "instructional preference," focuses on the channel where learning occurs, such as direct experience or listening. Claxton and Murrell believe that the personality model is the least likely to be influenced by the educator through the implementation of teaching methodologies or environmental changes.

Types of Learning Styles

Over the years, researchers have been developing theories to explain the different types of learning styles. The "4mat" system was developed by McCarthy (1987) and parallels Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule's (1986) theory of "connected knowing." Baxter-Magolda (1992) created a learning style theory as did Kolb in 1976. Nye (1991), R. Dunn (1993), and Thelen (cited in Joyce & Weil, 1986) present additional categories of learning styles. In addition, Hunt (cited in Joye & Weil) and Davis (1993) add their theories of learning styles.

The "4mat" system developed by McCarthy places learning styles into four categories (cited in Greive, 1990). Imaginative learners perceive information concretely and process it reflectively. This type of learner is interested in personal growth. Analytic learners rank factual knowledge over creativity. This type of learner is interested in theory and what experts believe, and thus becomes uncomfortable around subjectivity. The common-sense learner becomes the pragmatist in the classroom, often not working well in teamwork situations. Such learners tend to be problem-solvers and are skill-oriented. Dynamic learners are risk-takers and seek knowledge for the improvement of society. Self-discovery is one method the dynamic learner uses to accumulate knowledge. McCarthy believes each type of learner prefers a specific teaching methodology (as cited in Greive, p. 54-55).

While McCarthy's "4mat system" provides one model of how individuals learn, other researchers have produced additional categories for classifying learning styles (Baxter-Magolda, 1992;

Kolb, 1976; Nye, 1991; Philbin, Meier, Huffman, & Boverie, 1995). Baxter-Magolda believes there are four levels of epistemological reflection: absolute, transitional, independent, and contextual knowing. These four categories parallel Belenky, et al.'s (1986) concept of "connected knowing." Baxter-Magolda determined that the transitional learner is the most common type of learner in traditional-age students. Two patterns of this style exist: the interpersonal style, found more frequently in women, and the impersonal style, detected more frequently in men (Baxter-Magolda, cited in McKeachie, 1994, p. 232). For example, McKeachie (1994) defines the interpersonal pattern as wanting to exchange ideas with others, seeking rapport with the instructor, and wanting evaluation to take individual differences into account. This type of learner also resolves uncertainty by personal judgment. McKeachie defines the impersonal pattern as wanting to debate ideas, desiring to be challenged by the instructor, and requiring fair and practical evaluation. This type of learner resolves uncertainty by the use of logic and research (p. 233).

Kolb (1976) identifies four learning styles using the Learning Style Inventory (LSI). Kolb's experiential learning model is derived from a model of social learning, "that connects variability of individual learning style to flexibility in learning context" (Anderson & Adams, 1992, p. 25). These four styles are relevant because Philbin, Meier, Huffman, and Boverie (1995) use this schema in their investigation of learning styles. According to Kolb (1984), the four learning styles are as follows: accommodator, diverger, converger, and assimilator. Accommodators are hands-on learners who are best at working with concrete experience and active experimentation. Divergers excel in using imagination and brainstorming techniques. Convergers' strength lies in their ability to define problems and make decisions. Assimilators prefer to develop theories and create models and are the best at logically organizing and analyzing information (Kolb).

Philbin, et al., (1995) believe the assimilators are the best equipped for academic endeavors. Their academic success rate has therefore, perhaps made the assimilator learning style the most common style in traditional education (p. 487). Results from a survey of 72 students indicate that the learning style of the assimilator, which seems to fit women the least, is the best match for men. "Traditional educational settings may not be the best learning environment for females" (Philbin, et al., 1995, p. 491).

Nye (1991) differentiates between hard and soft learners. In regard to how students learn computer skills, Nye discovered that soft learners, usually female, identify with computers interactively and conversationally. Hard learners, usually male, consider computers as tools to implement plans for the mastery of tasks (p. 94). Fiske (1990) cites research which indicates that men's and women's satisfaction in college is correlated to different conditions. Fiske determined that men prefer college advisors who provide them with concrete information to attain their goals. Women, on the other hand, want to develop personal relationships and construct informal encounters with faculty and advisors (p. B8).

Additional research has determined that male students require more stimulation and action, whereas female students do not require mobility but are considerably more persevering and conforming (R. Dunn, 1993). Women prefer auditory instruction, yet require quiet time for learning. Men choose tactual and kinesthetic learning situations and simultaneously prefer sound in the environment (R. Dunn,). "Females of all [ethnic] groups tend to stay with the task to completion (persistent) more and more often than males" (R. Dunn, 1993, p. 27).

Thelen's work discusses the mismatching of learning styles and teaching methodologies (cited in Joyce & Weil, 1986). Thelen's text, Education and the Human Quest (cited in Joyce & Weil, 1986, p. 436) indicates that significant learning usually occurs when accompanied by discomfort. Other research (Davis, 1993) suggests that students with the same learning style may enjoy working together, but this comfortable atmosphere may make them learn less effectively, because they reinforce each other's weaknesses. These beliefs run contrary to many academics who believe a comfortable environment must be established.

Hunt initiated a series of studies to investigate the process by which learners responded to unfamiliar teaching strategies (cited in Joyce & Weil, 1986, p. 437). Results indicated that the more a given model of teaching was mismatched with the natural learning style of the student, the greater the challenge for the student to pass through the period of discomfort. To cope with the discomfort, the student had to develop strategies to manage the particular learning environment.

Joyce and Weil (1986) believe that to help students grow, instructors must generate "dynamic disequilibrium," which involves exposing students to different teaching techniques. Davis (1993) argues that consensus has not been reached by researchers about whether matching teaching techniques to learning styles increases learning (p. 189). An absence of research exists on the mismatching of teaching methodologies and learning styles that takes into consideration the female learner. Previous research on learning styles indicates that males meet the challenge of pushing through the period of discomfort. The female learner often does not push through the period of discomfort and accepts the importance of collaboration and cooperation (Joyce & Weil, 1986).

Inclusive Curriculum Issues

Textbooks

Men and women are not equally represented in college textbooks, college catalogs, and other college-produced materials. The textbook is often the primary source of content information for the student (Pearson, et al., 1995). "Changes in the contents of textbooks are an important aspect of what is necessary to achieve a genuine multicultural education for all students" (McCarthy, 1990, p. 121). Textbook selection is the fundamental place to start rethinking the curriculum (McCarthy, 1990). Peterson and Kroner (1992) state that as early as the late 1960s and the early 1970s gender stereotypes were being noted in textbook materials. Sadker and Sadker (cited in Stewart, Cooper, Stewart & Friedley, 1996) surveyed 24 leading teacher-education textbooks and determined the following: (a) no texts provided teachers with strategies to counteract sexism in the classroom, (b) five times more content space was allocated to males than to females, and (c) 23 out of 24 texts gave less than one percent of space to sexism in education. Ferree and Hall (1990) discovered that women continue to be absent in current college textbooks. Even college-produced promotional materials, such as college admissions catalogs may be biased (Stewart, et al., 1996). Gallo (1987) concludes that males and females in college catalogs are presented in stereotypical ways. Titus (1993) conducted a study of teacher education textbooks and discovered that the "presentation of gender issues in foundations textbooks is a feature both of what is not said as well as what is said" (p. 38).

Although some changes have been made, many forms of gender bias still exist in contemporary textbooks. Nelson (1990) contends that most of the course materials are male-oriented and male-dominated. A recent study of introductory psychology and life-span human-development texts showed that males significantly outrepresent females within these texts (Peterson & Kroner, 1992). Wood (1994) cites as an example a text where Madame Curie, two-time winner of the Nobel Prize, is referred to as her husband's "helpmate" (p. 212). Sadker and Sadker (1994) determined that some history textbooks devote about two percent of their pages to women, and various art textbooks discuss male artists rather than female ones. The feminist historian G. Lerner maintains that as regards the treatment of women in contemporary textbooks, the books can be described as presenting only worthy women (McCarthy, 1990, p. 122).

The unequal representation of females in college textbooks creates concerns for educators. Wood (1994) believes that these biases in textbook coverage have three implications regarding education. First, students may believe that male experiences are the standard for society, and that men have made the only significant contributions. Second, this curricular bias restricts everyone's knowledge of events and experiences. Third, male students may be encouraged to fulfill high ambitions, whereas women may be discouraged to aim high (pp. 214-215).

The additive approach to increasing female representation in college textbooks may only provide a beginning point towards creating non-biased textbooks. Creating an inclusive classroom involves using texts and readings which reflect the ideas and research of socially diverse groups which previously were underrepresented (Davis, 1993). Simply adding non-biased material without an attempt to integrate it into the overall format of the rest of the book is not enough to rid textbooks of stereotypical representations of women and men (McCarthy, 1990). Higginbotham (1991) also believes the additive approach is problematic. However, Wood and Lenze (1991a) contend that gender-sensitive texts acknowledge and value both women's and men's concerns about communication (p. 16).

Paige-Pointer and Auletta (1990) find that convincing faculty members to be more inclusive in their curriculum content is a challenging endeavor. There are four steps to help ensure that multi-cultural materials are incorporated into established courses that currently possess a Eurocentric viewpoint (Paige-Pointer & Auletta). First, faculty should be asked to participate voluntarily in curriculum change. Second, existing multi-cultural resources should be used. Third, issues such as resistance and silence should be aggressively addressed. Fourth, a multi-cultural network and tangible resources should be developed (p. 87).

Need for Inclusive Pedagogy

Research increasingly indicates that curricular content, class interaction patterns, and the classroom climate all perpetuate unequal treatment in the classroom. Few Americans understand or acknowledge the inequities that occur daily in classrooms around the country (American Association of University Women Report, 1992). AAUW found that "girls are not receiving the same quality, or even quantity, of education as their brothers" (p. 1). Research suggests that men and women do not have the same experiences in the classroom (Belenky, et al., 1986). Street, Kromrey and Kimmel (1995) conclude that the academic community continues to promote and reward masculine-typed gender behaviors and attitudes (p. 407). Male-dominated professions such as academe perceive women as deviant, exclude women from informal networks, and disregard gender-related research (McElrath, 1992). Hughes (cited in Street, et al., 1995) charged that faculty members support masculine gender traits. Various academic endeavors require masculine cognitive traits, therefore, many faculty, whether female or male, value the masculine gender and support and adopt male values. Women who work in traditionally male-dominated professions are more likely to adopt the masculine gender (Street, et al., 1995, p. 408).

The male mode of learning appears to correlate with the dominant instructional style. Smith, et al., (1994) suggest that even with the changes in gender sensitivity over the last 20 years, the college experience is still a gendered one (p. 723). Instructional scholars believe that higher education continues to be strongly influenced by the "dominant intellectual ethos of our time," which happens to be the male majority (Cooper, 1993, p. 122). Tannen (1991) argues that since classroom climates often use masculine communication styles, men are more comfortable with learning and, therefore, find learning easier. Advocates of multi-cultural practice (Anderson & Adams, 1992; Avery & Walker, 1993; McCarthy, 1990) note that traditional instructional models have not served traditional students successfully.

Research indicates that women would benefit from a classroom environment where women would be motivated to interact at the same levels as men. Despite efforts to equalize learning experiences, research indicates that men and women not only receive different instruction, "they learn to expect divergent experiences from the educational process" (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992, p. 66). Clarricoates (cited in Kelly, 1991) asserts that restrictions on female talk can lead to restrictions on female learning. Sullivan and Buttner (1992) maintain that because women are generally more alert to the supportiveness of environments than are men, it is especially important for instructors to create a classroom environment in which women are encouraged to participate.

At least two beliefs exist indicating women do not have an active voice in the college classroom. Maher (1985) believes the first reason why women do not have an active voice is the belief that academic disciplines ignore or distort the experiences of women by ignoring their contributions or structuring them around the male norm. McKeachie (1994) states that the literature portrays American classrooms as valuing the Eurocentric worldview. Sadker and Sadker (1992) indicate that at all grade levels, and in all subject areas, male students have more opportunities to interact than female students. Research indicates that male students are permitted and do participate in class more frequently than female students (Nadler & Nadler, 1990). Hall and Sandler (1982) determined that classrooms are often masculine settings where men can easily dominant.

Men and women's view of the world affects their orientation towards learning. Kearney and Plax (1996) describe co-cultures located in the United States. Specific Asian-American co-cultures, African-Americans, some Latino groups and Euroamericans, particularly male Euroamericans, represent a more masculine orientation. The feminine co-cultures of the United States include Native Americans, certain Scandinavian-American groups, Americans of Middle-Eastern ancestry, some Latino groups, and various Asian-American groups (p. 57). Most females and males in the United States are socialized to value, accept, and adopt the masculine thinking process involving linear logic (Kearney & Plax, 1996). Kashima, et al., (1995) argue that men often belong to the Western individualist culture, while women belong to the Eastern collectivist culture. Jenkins (1993) believes that faculty need to be "set free from the 'truth' of the myth that Eurocentric modes of thought and style are both universal and universally superior" (p. 23). Avery and Walker (1993) argue that teachers have perceptions of their students on the basis of gender. In the 1966 text, The History of Public Speaking in America (cited in Thomas, 1993), Oliver states,

> With few exceptions, the contribution of women, at least in the nineteenth century, to the public speaking platform, has largely been in numbers of passionate advocates and agitators, rather than in outstanding individual achievement...it was too much to expect that they could produce eloquent orators equal to the best of the men (p. 49).

Students' expectations of effective teachers may not correlate with their descriptions of female teachers. Bennett argues female and male students have gender-related expectations for their professors (cited in Sandler, 1991). Women faculty are expected to be more personal and supportive; however, when students were asked what qualities constitute an effective instructor, an individual who is nurturing was not viewed as an intelligent and dynamic teacher (p. 7).

The second reason women do not have a voice in the classroom is based on the belief that the dominant pedagogical styles do not reinforce women's styles of learning and are exclusionary towards women (Thomas, 1991, p. 31). The failure to be inclusive is reflected either by outright prejudice or a very subtle form of exclusion that is not easily identified (Collett & Serrano, 1992). Riddell (1989) discovered that both male and female teachers appealed to traditional perceptions of masculinity and femininity in the classroom. A classic study by Hall and Sandler (1982) indicates that a "chilly climate" exists for women in the classroom. The "chilly climate" may result in less in-class and out-of-class involvement by women, damaged confidence, and dampened aspirations" (Nadler & Nadler, 1993). Hall and Sandler (1983) observed that women more than men tend to believe that faculty encouragement and support are more important to them.

Hall and Sandler's (1982) analysis of the "chilly climate" for women in university settings found many areas of differential behavior: Examples include ignoring female students while recognizing male students, addressing male students by name, and calling directly on male students but not on female students (Hall & Sandler, 1982). Asking women more simplistic questions, responding more extensively to men's comments, and waiting longer for men to answer a question appear to add to this "chilly climate" (Ivy & Backlund, 1994).

> The fact that male students generally receive substantially more recognition, encouragement, and academic counseling than females makes the classroom a "chilly climate" for girls and women, who are often not expected to excel and are not encouraged to learn skills of assertion and independent problem solving (Wood, 1994, p. 75).

The behaviors of women faculty members may be influenced by the "chilly climate." Sandler (1991) realized that the "chilly climate" may also affect women faculty members. Research on teaching effectiveness indicates that personal interaction between student and teacher is important (Hensel, 1991). Tinto (cited in Davis, 1993) asserts that frequent informal contact with faculty members is the strongest predictor of whether or not a student will voluntarily withdraw from a college (p. 48). Yet, Bennett suggests a highly structured instructional approach was viewed by students as more professional than a more collaborative and innovative classroom (cited in Sandler, 1991).

While a positive mentoring relationship leads to increased success and fulfillment, women are often not given the opportunity to develop a mentoring relationship. The subject of mentoring becomes complex when the factor of gender is introduced (Olson & Ashton-Jones, 1992.) McKeachie (1994) states that individual nurturing through mentoring relationships proves to be important to student success; yet, women report much lower instances of being mentored than male European-Americans (p. 229). The mentoring process is also positive for female faculty members. Olson & Ashton-Jones argue that there is a distinct lack of mentors for women. Dipboye (1987) and Spencer and

Podmore (1987) indicate that mentoring and networking have been shown to influence an individual's participation in decision-making (cited in Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993). Female faculty members have reported that they are less likely to consider their work environment as providing them with an opportunity to make decisions or acquire an administrative role (Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993, p. 328). Hall and Sandler (1983) believe that mentors choose persons like themselves as protégés and tend to overlook newcomers who are different from themselves. Female students may observe a greater proportion of female faculty members, but may see them in less powerful positions than those held by men (McElrath, 1992). Workshops on mentoring for both faculty and students would help to indicate the importance of mentoring (Hall & Sandler, 1983).

Evidence maintains the belief that the classroom environment supports the masculine style of learning. As Belenky, et al., (1982) suggest, women possess learning styles which are different from those of males. Wood and Lenze (1991) reviewed research which collectively indicated that contemporary western classrooms tend to favor men's ways of thinking and learning and to disconfirm women's ways (p. 17). Gender study scholars argue that the classroom environment has been dictated by a masculine style (Belenky, et al., 1982). Behaviors such as highly assertive speech, impersonal style, and competitive communication are equaled with intelligence and authority (Lay, 1989). However, females, more frequently than males, indicate challenge as a reason for enrolling in a particular course (Wilson, Stocking, & Goldstein, 1994). Females also report that the novelty of the course was a reason for selection (p. 355).

Male and female students are treated differently in the classroom and students should become of these gender differences. Wood (1993) posits four reasons why students should learn about gender differences in the classroom. First, students become more intellectually complete when they understand both the male and female development of communication. Second, students need to honor differences instead of ranking them. Third, course material becomes enhanced when it is presented from both perspectives. Finally, students gain insights about themselves and those with whom they interact (p. 89).

Faculty must also be informed about the gender differences in the classroom. In order to improve the gender situation in college classrooms, faculty must become educated "about gender and how it affects [their] lives" (Nelson, 1990). Stahl (1993) contends that for college women to be successful, a parity in access to all learning modes should exist. Wood and Lenze (1991a) argue that creating an awareness of gender-sensitivity on campus is difficult mainly because the insensitivity tends to be inadvertent. Yet, strategies for increasing this sensitivity can be powerful agents of change. Higginbotham contents that curriculum transformation has the "potential for changing our traditional visions of education in American society" (p. 10).

Inclusive Pedagogy

Inclusive teaching methodologies include liberatory, gender-fair, experiential, interactive, and feminist pedagogy. The thread binding these concepts together is the belief that student and teacher interaction is a core element of the classroom environment.

Instructional strategies which encompass inclusive pedagogical issues often create classroom environments free from bias and partiality.

Inclusive pedagogy consists of classroom management techniques aimed at reducing gender bias and increasing acceptance to male and female modes of learning. Differences in the classroom are to be respected, and students learn from one another in the liberatory classroom (Higginbotham, 1990). Freirean pedagogy, often also referred to as liberatory pedagogy, is one that is "participatory, critical, values-oriented, multi-cultural, student-centered, experiential, research-minded, and interdisciplinary" (Shor, 1987, p. 22). Jenkins (1993) believes that a liberatory approach to teaching means having a greater tolerance for diversity and a more inclusive stance regarding what constitutes a good classroom (p. 19).

MacKinnon refers to the concept of the "feminist method" (cited in Maher, 1985). MacKinnon believes the feminist method "is . . .the collective critical reconstitution of the meaning of women's social experience, as women live through it" (cited in Maher, p. 35). The early 1980s marked the period when women's studies scholars began implementing feminist pedagogy, which provided the thrust behind the development of curriculum transformation projects (Goodstein, 1994).

Various definitions of feminist pedagogy exist. Shrewsbury (1993a) defines feminist pedagogy as a "theory about the teaching/learning process that guides our choice of classroom practices by providing criteria to evaluate specific educational strategies and techniques in terms of the desired course goals or outcomes" (p. 8). Feminist theory is defined by Jenkins (1993) as both a political and institutional process whereby the issues of valuing inclusion, validating voices, and exposing androcentric ideologies form the foundation of feminist pedagogy (p. 19). Feminist pedagogy helps the educator attend to students' cognitive development and personal experiences (K. Dunn, 1993, p. 44). Feminist pedagogy is in opposition to the traditional purpose of curriculum in that it reinvents education rather than reproducing inequality (Shor, 1987).

Concerns about Feminist Pedagogy

The acceptance of feminist pedagogy has not been met without skepticism. Not all researchers agree with the need to use feminist pedagogy in the classroom (Beckman, 1991; Friedman, 1985; Patai & Kortege, 1994; Sandler, 1991). Patai and Kortege (1994) "object to . . . the pedagogical practice of presenting unsubstantiated ideas to students ill-prepared to examine them, and dressing these notions up as well-founded and properly documented feminist correctives to 'mainstream' prejudice" (p. 140). Beckman (1991) warns educators not to create a hidden curriculum where students believe they are in a democratic classroom, yet where rules are developed and applied only by the instructor. "In spite of democratic practices, the teacher, like the 'boss,' retains ultimate control in the classroom" (Beckman, p. 171). In some cases, when women's issues are introduced as part of the curriculum, they may not be seen as real and become devalued (Sandler, 1991).

Feminist pedagogy may not prepare students to adequately handle the workplace once students begin their careers. Beckman (1991) also argues that while feminist pedagogy aims to nurture inclusivity and collaboration, the workplace remains a hierarchical environment where the rules are established by a few. In the educational arena as well, rulemaking is still in the hands of the few, that is, the instructors (p. 171). To deter any possible inequities apparent within feminist pedagogy, Beckman offers three suggestions. First, educators should make their grade criteria explicit to students. Second, standards of evaluation should be jointly developed by the instructor and the student. Third, students should be made aware when power is in the hands of the few (pp. 173-176).

Friedman (1985) explains that feminist pedagogy poses some problems to both teachers and students alike. Issues such as teachers' grading and evaluation, students' need for validation and nurturance from faculty members, and the faculty's need to encourage rigorous work while maintaining personal relationships with students all create potential problems, especially when structured within a patriarchal institution (p. 203).

Students may also deter the possible benefits of feminist pedagogy. The warnings Beckman (1991), Friedman (1985), and Sandler (1991) direct at educators are not the only cautions concerning implementing feminist pedagogy in the classroom. Lozanov (cited in K. Dunn, 1993) believes that students create barriers which prohibit feminist teaching. The first barrier students create is intuitive/affective. Students from socially diverse groups may be the first to use the intuitive barrier when they become anxious because they cannot absorb information. The second barrier students create is ethical. Students may withdraw from an educational opportunity when they confront information that goes against their existing value systems. The third barrier students create is critical/logical. This occurs when new information does not fit into existing thought structures. Students then experience cognitive dissonance and will either stop paying attention or dismiss the new material (pp. 40-41).

Developing an Inclusive Classroom

The implementation of inclusive teaching methodologies is a complicated process, particularly because no rules have been established. Conway believes feminists are more likely than others to notice that "the academic environment is one that assumes the male experience as normative, and provides few examples of successful and competent women receiving respect and recognition from their male peers" (cited in Crosby, et al., 1994, p. 107). Research on the teaching process indicates that most classrooms tend to favor a traditionally male approach to learning and devalue or disconfirm a traditionally feminine approach (Ivy and Backlund, 1994). Solomon (cited in Davis, 1993) contends no specific rules or universally accepted solutions exist for dealing with diversity in the classroom; and, research in the area of inclusive teaching methodologies is limited.

Integrating the issue of diversity into the curriculum is difficult. Transforming the curriculum requires discussions of the roles of gender, race, and class, and how these issues shape the lives of everyone (Higginbotham, 1990, p. 18). Feminist scholars are exploring ways to integrate feminist pedagogy into traditional courses and into all disciplines (Higginbotham; 1990; Rakow, 1992; Thomas, 1991; Wood, 1993). Researchers such as Bezucha (1985) maintain that feminist pedagogy is a subversive activity because it challenges established ideas about teaching and learning within the institution itself (p. 82). Maher (1985) refers to feminist pedagogy as a method in which the subject matter is related to student needs and interests and depends on the active participation of all students, particularly those who have been silenced (p. 38). This method takes into account the collaborative tendency of women rather than competitive interaction. "Empowering pedagogy takes seriously the goal of lifelong learning by consciously developing teaching/learning skills as well as by providing an informational subject base" (Shrewsbury, 1993).

Just as the addition of female examples within a traditional textbook will not create a non-biased text, the additive approach is not an effective means of transforming a classroom into an inclusive one. Developing an inclusive classroom involves more than simply adding culturally diverse content (Butler & Walter, 1991). Helle (1994) asserts that adding more women and minorities to the academic mix is not enough for curriculum reform. Previous attempts at transforming the curriculum to make it more integrated with women's viewpoints resulted in the revising of graduation requirements to include one or more diversity courses (Goodstein, 1994). Three years after the implementation of a diversity requirement at a particular higher education institution, Goodstein remarked that the impact had been minimal. The administration equated "diversity" with "variety" and added courses to the curriculum in order to assure diversity (p. 99). Rethinking the curriculum often begins with the addition of references to socially diverse groups, but McKeachie (1994) and Shrewsbury (1993a) believe that a transformative approach is necessary, in which the course is taught from the perspectives of diverse cultures. Schniedewind (1993) states that research on women's manner of thinking and communicating suggests that their intellectual development would be enhanced in a classroom which implemented feminist pedagogy.

The development of this inclusive classroom broadly involves two areas: curriculum issues and instructional strategies.

Higginbotham (1990) argues that transforming the curriculum involves three inter-related tasks. First, individuals must gain information about the diversity of female experience. Second, faculty must decide how to teach this new material. Third, classsroom dynamics must be structured to ensure a safe environment and to support learning for all students (p. 7).

Currently, the classroom environment is a masculine one. McKeachie (1994) states that socially diverse groups (i.e., gender, ethnicity, race, social order) have claimed that the content of most courses is focused on the Western intellectual tradition, mainly on the European-descended male. These same groups argue that classroom interactions, learning styles, and other aspects of teaching and learning are based on the European-male cultural style (McKeachie, p. 225).

The masculine orientation of the classroom includes such issues as classroom participation patterns, stereotypical gender expectations, and the lack of gender difference awareness. Classroom participation patterns are consistent with the masculine rules of communication and incompatible with the female model (Wood, 1994). The inclusive pedagogical process involves the instructor's use of language, classroom style, and ways of responding to students (Wood &

Lenze, 1991b, p. 17). Roop (1989) explains that gender sensitivity is the constant awareness of the workings of sex and gender in our culture and classroom (p. 91). The classroom encourages and rewards female behavior that is stereotypically feminine, such as compliance with rules and regulations and preference for highly structured activities (Serbin, Zelkowitz, Doyle, Gold, & Wheaton, 1990).

The instructional approach faculty use in the classroom directly impacts how students learn. Kember and Gow (1994) believe there are two orientations towards teaching: the traditional "knowledge transmission" approach and the "learning facilitation" approach. Each orientation affects curriculum design, teaching methodology, and specific learning tasks (p. 70).

Cooperative learning is one method within the paradigm of inclusive teaching methodologies. Cooperative learning strategies are thought to be easily implemented, because of the compatibility of the style with other ongoing classroom strategies (Sapon-Shevin & Schniedewind, 1992). Implementation of this inclusive teaching strategy can occur on three levels: classroom activities, classroom environment practices, and principles of pro-social behavior (Sapon-Shevin & Schniedewind, p. 20). Students in cooperative classrooms: (a) take responsibility for themselves and others, (b) share power and participate equally in learning and decision-making, (c) value diversity, (d) encourage positive interdependence, and (e) believe that success is collective (pp. 21-24).

Curriculum Revision

Factors such as the increasing enrollment of female college students, the addition of more females in nontraditional majors, and the availability of research on women's styles of learning perpetuate a need to transform the curriculum. A growing number of American colleges and universities are beginning to learn how to introduce gender diversity into the curriculum (Paige-Pointer & Auletta, 1990). Two compelling reasons exist for transforming the curriculum: (a) the demographics of future student bodies, and (b) the nature of the new scholarship on women (University of Maryland at College Park, 1988). Transforming the curriculum is critical to two additional important areas: the campus climate and women in nontraditional majors (p. 4). A program instituted at the University of Maryland at College Park determined that curriculum transformation fell into three stages of planning (Beck, Greer, Jackson, & Schmitz, 1990). The first part is curriculum development, which includes expanding courses focused on women and incorporating women into the curriculum. The second part requires increased faculty/student interaction. The third part includes the entry of women into nontraditional fields (p. 2). Kember and Gow (1994) believe that any type of social change must go through a three-step procedure involving unfreezing, moving, and freezing of another level.

Curriculum revision plans exist. K. Foss (1993), S. Foss (1993), Helle (1994) Makau (1993), Peterson (1991), Rakow (1993), and Thomas (1993) present strategies to create a more inclusive classroom and to revise the curriculum. Andersen (cited in Higginbotham, 1990) believes that revising the content of one's course requires the clarification of personal goals and educational aims (p. 13). Rakow contends that some headway has been made in the inclusion of women into existing courses (p. 92). The effects of these changes have occurred at both the macro and micro levels The macro level involves the department, and the micro level affects individual courses (Rakow, 1993).

The curriculum revision plan outlined by Rakow (1993) is a five-phase restructuring. Phase 1 is characterized by an exclusive curriculum lacking gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies. Phase 2 includes the works of exceptional outsiders. Phase 3 emphasizes understanding of the outsider. Phase 4 switches the perspective away from the dominant group to that of the outsiders. Finally, phase 5 produces the transformed curriculum that includes new ways to organize and arrange knowledge (p. 94).

Peterson (1991) presents a plan for curriculum revision which is aimed at incorporating women's culture and experience. The five-step plan is based on McIntosh's typology for "mainstreaming" women into the curriculum and is both complex and controversial (p. 61). The first step involves an awareness of the androcentric model of speech and a need for change. The second step includes the belief that women's contributions should be added to the course content. McCarthy (1990) warns that curriculum revision should not be limited to the addition of content about women into the curriculum, and therefore should include additional steps. The third step involves the questioning of the status quo. This stage requires educators and students to become familiar with women's studies and scholarship and for educators to use inclusive teaching methodologies (p. 63). The fourth step requires a shift away from the attitude that women are different to an inclusive view of women's contributions to communication. The impression that because women are different from men, individuals believe women's work can be ignored or trivialized. The fifth step encompasses a balanced curriculum in regard to gender as well as race, class, age, and ethnicity (pp. 61-66).

The University of Maryland at College Park initiated a curriculum-transformation project to improve women's education. The plan called for the incorporation of women's scholarship, the inclusion of faculty-development programs to improve diversity in the classroom, and the development of resources and activities to encourage women to pursue nontraditional career paths (Beck, Greer, Jackson, & Schmitz, 1990).

While examples of successful curriculum-revision projects exist, the educational climate continues to require additional changes. McCarthy (1990) believes that a larger change is necessary. McCarthy's plan proposes that emancipatory multi-culturalism is needed in order to get beyond the language of "inclusivity" and to a greater understanding of issues such as race, gender, and multi-culturalism (p. 119). Lippert-Martin (1992) interviewed a number of higher education professionals and found mixed results as to the degree of change in the educational climate over the last decade. For example, change has been demonstrated in some parts of higher education, initiated by women's studies programs and by the institution itself (p. 7).

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Methodology

A developmental problem solving methodology was used to formulate a plan for incorporating gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Procedures

Five procedures were followed in order to respond to the five research questions. First, a series of literature reviews were conducted. Second, an analysis of public speaking materials and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec was analyzed. Third, a questionnaire was developed and distributed to male and female professional speakers in the St. Louis area related to how men and women were trained and want to be trained as speakers. Fourth, in-depth interviews were conducted with 15 subjects to solicit more information determining male and female speaking styles, preference for public speaking instruction, and gender differences affecting public speaking styles. Fifth, the plan for initiating changes in the public speaking course was developed and presented to the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec.

The first procedure consisted of the completion of a series of reviews of literature. The reviews of literature were designed to answer the following four research questions: (a) what does the literature yield regarding gender differences in public speaking behavior?, (b) what does the literature yield regarding women's preferred styles of learning?, (c) what does the literature yield regarding public speaking instruction at institutions of higher education and the inclusion of women's styles of learning?, and (d) what teaching methodologies have been identified in the literature which would address women's preferred styles of learning?

The topics for these literature reviews were as follows: (a) gender differences in public speaking, (b) public speaking instruction, (c) learning styles and gender, (d) inclusive teaching methodologies, and (e) curriculum revision plans. The literature search was conducted using the databases of ERIC, psycLIT, Expanded Academic ASAD, Infotrac, National Newspaper Index, and ABI/Inform. Search words included gender differences in communication style, sex differences, male/female communication, cognitive/learning styles, questionnaire design, survey development, public speaking instruction, feminist pedagogy, instructional strategies, curriculum design/revision, strategic planning, and evaluation. The reviews of literature combined research from the field of education, including classroom instructional strategies, curriculum design, and administration, and from communication studies, such as gender differences and public speaking instruction.

An extensive bibliography was developed from sources such as academic journals (i.e., Communication Education, ERIC documents, Sex Roles, Communication Monographs, Women's Studies Quarterly, and other communication, education, and psychology journals), tradebooks, college textbooks, convention papers, dissertations, published information, and material located on-line, such as the INTERNET.

The second procedure consisted of the completion of an analysis of public speaking materials and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec. The analysis of the public speaking texts and tradebooks was designed to answer the third research question: "what does the literature yield regarding public speaking instruction at institutions of higher education and the inclusion of woemn's styles of learning?"

Public speaking texts and tradebooks were analyzed regarding their inclusion of gender communication. A total of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks were analyzed on five criteria. Texts were obtained through the SLCC-Meramec library and bookstore, area university and public libraries, and local bookstores. Public speaking anthologies and public speaking texts written for academia and the general public were selected. Texts written as early as 1936 until the present were chosen for analysis. Approximately 25 texts have been used or are currently in use at SLCC-Meramec.

Each text was analyzed regarding five coding categories: (a) reference to "gender" in the index, (b) ratio of female versus male speech examples, (c) multi-cultural reference, (d) mention of gender differences in language, and (e) reference to gender as part of audience demographics. The table of contents, index, and specific chapters from each text were analyzed for reference to gender, particularly citations of female speakers and female speech examples. A table listing each book along with the five coding categories was developed, and indicators were placed on the grid to signify a gender reference.

The third procedure consisted of the completion of a questionnaire. The development and distribution of the questionnaire was designed to answer the fourth research question: "what teaching methodologies have been identified in the literature which would address women's preferred styles of learning?"

The questionnaire was developed and distributed to male and female professional speakers in the St. Louis area and related to how men and women were trained and want to be trained as speakers. The questionnaire was specifically distributed to St. Louis area members of the National Speakers Association, Toastmasters organizations, college and university educators, and professional speakers. Fifty members attending the National Speakers Association and Toastmasters meetings were asked to participate in the project. They received a copy of the questionnaire and were asked to complete the survey in the presence of the researcher. The educators and professional speakers were asked to participate in the project through the use of a cover letter requesting their participation. Communications, Foreign Language, and Theatre professors at SLCC-Meramec, and Management and Communications faculty members at Concordia University-Wisconsin St. Louis Center (CUW) were asked to participate in the study. These two academic populations were selected because they are diverse and represent two distinct target student groups. Faculty members at SLCC-Meramec are responsible for teaching community college students, whereas CUW-St. Louis Center faculty members are responsible for teaching adult students. A total of 49 SLCC-Meramec faculty and 28 CUW-St. Louis Center faculty were asked to complete the questionnaire.

Participants were chosen from membership records of the St. Louis Chapter of the American Society of Training and Development (ASTD), National Speakers Association, and Toastmasters organizations. Approximately 25 participants came from this participant pool.

The questionnaire was developed using standard question-writing techniques. Generally, the most effective questions are worded as simply as possible (Berdie, Anderson, & Neibuhr, 1986). Schumacher and McMillan (1993) provide suggestions about writing questions. Besides making the items clear and concise, these authors believe the questions should also be relevant, simple, unbiased, and written in a neutral way. Focus, brevity, and clarity are of prime importance according to Alreck and Settle (1985). Developers of questionnaires should avoid ambiguous questions, multi-purpose questions, biased wording, inappropriate emphasis, and manipulative questioning (Rea & Parker, 1992).

Answers to survey questions typically require the respondent to make a choice along a continuum, select the most appropriate choice, or rank items. All of these methods refer to the scaling of questions. A scale is a series of gradations, levels, or values that describe various degrees of something (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). The Likert, semantic differential, and the adjective check list are a variety of the scaling methods used in many questionnaires.

Questionnaires should be developed which are functional and pleasing to the eye. A general principle to follow in formatting a questionnaire is that the respondent's needs must always receive top priority, the interviewer should have next highest priority, and data processing staff should receive the lowest priority (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982, p. 229).

The questionnaire should follow a very specific order, particularly when it is a mailed survey opposed to an interview administered survey. The better organized the questionnaire the more likely the respondent will be able to finish the questionnaire in a reasonable amount of time. It has been erroneously believed that the shorter the questionnaire, the higher the response rate. However, current studies suggest that no correlation between length of questionnaire and response rate exists (Berdie, et al., 1986). Generally, it is advisable to make the questionnaire meaningful, rather than short. Alreck and Settle (1985) believe that the initial part of the questionnaire should include the most general questions. If a potential respondent agrees to participate promptly when the survey is introduced, only a very small percentage will withdraw their cooperation later (Alreck & Settle, 1985).

Validity and reliability are two paramount concerns in questionnaire design. Before a pilot or field test is implemented, the Learning Activity Packet (Nova Southeastern University, 1993) suggests that an expert panel consisting of questionnaire design experts and/or content experts analyze the questionnaire and evaluate the contents. After this step, the questionnaire is ready to be field tested. A pilot test of the questionnaire often aids in the assurance of validity and reliability.

The questionnaire was reviewed by two expert panels to establish validity, reliability of content, and clarity of the questions (see Appendix J). The panel consisted of three members of the SLCC-Meramec Communications Department and one educator from another institution (see Appendix K). Committee participants suggested that the first draft of the questionnaire required four changes to be made. First, six questions from the first draft of the questionnaire needed to be rewritten or organized in a different manner. Second, "Don't remember" was added as a third response option for the first question. Third, a grammatical error in the introduction of the questionnaire needed to be corrected. Fourth, the recommendation to organize the questionnaire into three parts was suggested.

In addition, the reliability of the questionnaire was determined by a pilot test conducted by a panel of six faculty members from the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec (see Appendix L). Pilot study participants suggested that the questionnaire necessitated two changes. First, two question required rewriting. Second, the statements of "Don't remember" and "Depends on context" were added as options to two questions.

The fourth procedure consisted of the completion of in-depth interviews. The development of the interview was designed to also answer the fourth research question "what teaching methodologies have been identified in the literature which would address women's preferred styles of learning?"

In-depth interviews were conducted with 15 subjects to solicit more information determining male and female speaking styles, preference for public speaking instruction, and gender differences affecting public speaking styles (see Appendix M). The purpose of the interviews was to gather additional data regarding how men and women evaluate their public speaking instruction and experiences. The researcher used a personal-interview format, including an interview guide to ensure uniformity. A series of closed, open, and follow-up questions was included for each of the three sections of the interview. Each interview was tape-recorded, and responses were recorded on the interview guide by the researcher. Each interview took place at a location determined accessible by both parties, and the decision was achieved by mutual consent. Participants in the interviews were notified that their interview would last no longer than one hour.

The interview guide was developed using standard question-writing techniques. The interview is essentially a vocal questionnaire, yet it results in a higher response rate than questionnaires (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). Hamilton (1987) states, "[Interviews] can improve the communication climate by fostering the perception that something is being done which is worth doing and in which everyone is invited to contribute" (p. 76). The purposes of the interview are to explore variables in the research project, to supplement other methods, follow up unexpected results, and/or validate other methods of research (Isaac & Michael, 1981).

A variety of interview structures exist, from the unstructured interview resembling a conversation, to the more structured interview similar to a well-defined structure and resembling an objective questionnaire. Schumacher and McMillan (1993) believe that standardized open-ended interviews reduce interviewer effects and bias. For example, in this type of interview, participants are asked the same questions in the same order (p. 426). The interview schedule lists in order all the questions which will be asked and allows for the interviewer to write answers on the interview form.

Schumacher and McMillan (1993) state that preparing an interview guide includes justification, defining objectives, writing questions, deciding general and item format, and pretesting (p. 250). The interview should be simple and objective. After the questions have been written, the questions must be pretested to check for bias. Isaac and Michael (1981) state that an interviewer should develop a tentative guide to be used during the interview and should also develop a satisfactory method of coding and recording responses. Hamilton (1987) believes that the first part of the interview should establish basic information, such as demographic data.

The recording of responses usually is completed in one of two ways, by tape-recording or by means of written notes (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). Two types of note-taking exist. The first method involves the interviewer taking verbatim notes. The second method involves the interviewer waiting until the interview is over and reconstructing the answer to each question. Schumacher and McMillan believe that most interviewers "compromise between these extremes" (p. 254). Hamilton also states that the interviewer should keep to the factual, and should use a variety of the questions from the formal written questionnaire in the interview. This allows the interviewer to gain more detail, since "people will often talk freely when they will refrain from writing" (p. 75). Finally, the interviewer should thank the respondents for their time.

Participants in the in-depth interviews included male and female non-experienced and experienced public speakers. A total of 15 individuals (8 male and 7 female) were asked to participate in the interviews. Each interview was designed to gather information from novice and professional speakers. Non-experienced speakers were those individuals who had delivered up to three speeches in public; however, emphasis was placed on those who did not deliver a speech in public. Experienced speakers were those individuals who have delivered more than three speeches in public, who routinely speak in public, or who receive remuneration to speak in public.

The fifth procedure consisted of the completion of a plan for initiating changes in the public speaking course. The plan was developed and presented to the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec. The development of the plan was designed to answer the fifth research question: "what are the essential steps for developing recommendations to the Communications Department Chair that will facilitate the integration of gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec?"

The plan was developed by compiling the conclusions drawn from the series of reviews of literature and the data collected from the analysis of the public speaking textbooks and tradebooks, questionnaires, and interviews. Research has shown that seven criteria must be met before an educational program can be deemed one of high quality (Bergquist & Armstrong, 1986). The first five criteria relate to the characteristics of the program, while the remaining two focus on the characteristics of the learner. A educational program should be attractive to the needs and interests of the targeted population and should provide benefits to the community and society. The educational program should also deliver what it intends to deliver and be distinctive by not merely being a copy of another program which was successful somewhere else. A program can only be considered quality if and when the learning outcomes have been met, documented, and communicated. "The ultimate test of effectiveness is how the program meets the needs of and produces desirable change in the current or potential students it intends to serve" (Bergquist & Armstrong, p. 5).

Diamond (1989) believes several conditions must be met in order for significant academic improvements to occur. Faculty must have ownership, and possess academic administrative support in the process. A support team should be put in place for the planning and implementation of the program. Diamond argues, "Evaluation must be an integral part of the process . . ."(p. 2).

Program development literature stresses the importance of utilizing multiple criteria for accessing the merit of a program or activity (Davis, 1989). Methods which have been used in evaluation include tests, surveys, interviews, and observations using experimental and quasi-experimental designs (Davis, p: 17). Schumacher and McMillan (1993) include tests, questionnaires, self-report devices, rating scales, observation systems, and interview schedules as instruments used in the program develop and evaluation process. A review of the research and feedback from the evaluation committees indicated that the plan should consist of four parts: a reference manual, a guide, outlines for three two-hour departmental workshops, and an outline for a campus-wide staff development workshop. The plan will be responsible for the following reasons: (a) providing knowledge to the Communications Department in the form of written materials, (b) supplying direction and leadership through the departmental workshops, and (c) creating awareness at the campus level through the campus-wide staff-development program.

Formative and summative evaluation committees guided the development of the plan. Scrivin (cited in Schumacher & McMillan,

1993) discriminated between formative and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation involves researchers collecting data to modify or revise a curriculum in its developmental stage. It is often used for the purpose of improving and developing a program, activity, or product (Davis, 1989). Usually the audience for such an evaluation is the program personnel. The formative evaluation is typically conducted by an internal evaluator.

A formative evaluation committee acted in an advisory manner for this project. The advisory committee consisted of faculty members within the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec (see Appendix N). Although committee members determined that the material included in the plan would be appropriate to the institution and the content valid, three recommendations were made. First, committee members suggested that workshops 1 and 3 of the plan could be presented at combined meetings of the Oral Communications and Public Speaking committees. Second, workshop 2 could be presented at full departmental meetings including all Communications faculty. Third, the plan should be presented along with information such as assessment, integration of academics, general education, career studies, and reading and study skills.

The role of summative evaluation is to determine the effectiveness of a program considering other competing programs. Accountability or resource allocation issues usually require the use of summative evaluation (Davis, 1989). Potential users of the program, product, or procedure are the intended audience of summative evaluation (Schumacher & McMillan). Usually external evaluators are used for a summative evaluation.

A summative evaluation committee consisting of content experts in the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec provided information on content validity and the feasibility of implementing the plan (see Appendix O). All three committee members believed the plan provided a clear, cohesive, common vision and delineation of the public speaking course and the integration of inclusive teaching methodologies, and that the material would be of strong importance to faculty campus-wide. Three recommendations were posited. First, the committee suggested that the plan be considered for adoption at all three campuses. Second, the professional development committee on the Meramec campus should consider the implementation of this plan since learning styles and inclusive teaching methodologies belong in the context of professional development. Third, the Communications Department Chair may further recommend that all communications courses adopt the curriculum and use gender-fair teaching methodologies.

The evaluation of the plan was developed using standard program evaluation techniques. Evaluation is seen as providing "feedback leading to a successful outcome defined in practical, concrete terms" (Isaac & Michael, 1981, p. 2). Evaluation is generally used in a broader context which goes beyond students' learning and development (Erwin, 1991). As defined by the Joint Committee (1981) representing twelve organizations, "evaluation is the process of determining worth or merit of an activity, program, person or product" (Davis, 1989, p. 7). The intended audiences of evaluation are often decision makers and program participants.

In order for the evaluation information to be useful, Davis (1989) determined through a review of evaluation literature that seven conditions should be met. First, opportunities for the client and evaluator to discuss findings should be available. Second, key administrators should support the evaluation process. Third, checks should be in place to make sure the information is valid, credible, and reliable. Fourth, recommendations should be written explicitly. Fifth, reports should be brief and address the client's concerns. Sixth, results of the evaluation should be published in a timely manner. Finally, one or more individuals should be identified to provide leadership for the implementation of the suggestions.

Since the early 1970's, evaluators have been considering the importance of including race, ethnicity, and gender within the education program planning and evaluation process (Beaudry, 1992); therefore the idea of including different voices in the evaluation process is not a novel one. ". . . Evaluation process must seek to include the multiple perspectives of ethnicity, race, gender, and social class" (Beaudry, p. 69). Gender and social class issues must be represented in both the design and evaluation of educational programs (Beaudry, 1992). Yet a review of literature conducted by Grant and Sleeter determined gender and social class were issues that were often not integrated into both program planning and evaluation (cited in Madison, 1992). Madison warns evaluators that the evaluation process should be involved in primary inclusion. Primary inclusion refers to the "direct participation of program participants in all phases of program development, from the conceptualization of problems to the evaluation and the interpretation of findings" (Madison, p. 36).

Issac and Michael (1981) remind evaluators to develop measures that have the best fit with the program objectives. Assessment literature recommends that faculty become involved in each step of the evaluation process. Other researchers (Davis, 1989) recommend a team approach to evaluation.

Assumptions

In the development of this project, the following five assumptions were made:

1. The literature searches conducted for this project were assumed to be appropriate, accurate, and representative of scholarship, particularly in the areas of gender differences in public speaking behavior, curriculum revision and inclusive teaching methodologies.

2. The analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks was assumed to be indicative of the content included in public speaking materials utilized in instruction and which were available to the general public.

3. The questionnaires were answered thoroughly and accurately by the respondents.

4. The follow-up interviews provided honest and sincere answers from the respondents.

5. The information provided by the advisory, formative, and summative committee members was assumed to be thorough and accurate.

Limitations

The following are limitations of this study:

1. The plan applies only to the Communications Department at St. Louis Community College-Meramec. It may not be possible to

extrapolate the information for use as a plan or model for other departments at the college or at other institutions.

2. The reliability of the questionnaire and the interviews to determine gender differences in public speaking and the preferred method of instruction is limited to the expertise of the advisory committee in consultation with the writer of the project.

3. The validity of the questionnaire and interview data are limited to the expertise of the formative and summative committee members in consultation with the writer of the project.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan to incorporate gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methods into the public speaking course at St. Louis Community College-Meramec. In order to develop this plan, a series of research questions was used to collect essential information. The collection, analysis, and synthesis of information was achieved through the use of five procedures.

Research Question 1 Results

Gender Differences in Public Speaking

The first research question stated: "what does the literature yield regarding gender differences in public speaking behavior?" To determine the answer to this question, a series of reviews of literature were conducted.

The literature indicates that gender differences have been researched for approximately 50 years with over 1200 available studies on these differences, yet limited conclusive findings have been reported (Canary & Hause, 1993). In the extensive review it was found that male and female communication styles consist of the following categories: (a) public speaking style, (b) speech organization, (c) language style, (d) expletives and profanity, (e) communication apprehension and stress, (f) humor, (g) nonverbal communication, (h) influence and persuasibility, (i) self-evaluation, and (j) evaluation. An analysis of findings follows.

Public Speaking Styles

Women prefer interacting in private, tend to be high in context but lower in power, and seek human connections more than power, status, or winning (Gilligan, 1982; Kearney & Plax; 1996; Tannen, 1990). According to Tannen (1990), females tend to prefer interacting in private, while males tend to prefer public situations. When women speakers are compared to males, women tend to be high context, low power, and feminine in their speaking orientation (Kearney & Plax, 1996). Gilligan (1982) argues that the feminine style of communicating seeks human connection more than power, status, or winning. Wood (1994) believes that women want to achieve symmetry or equality with the audience. Women speakers value being polite, showing respect and courtesy towards others, and avoiding criticizing, outdoing, or putting others down (p. 140). Women strive to be attentive, responsive, and open to the audience (Kearney & Plax, p. 403). Feminine speakers, in an effort to avoid conflict in public speaking situations, are more likely to acknowledge areas of agreement between the audience and themselves (Tannen, 1990). Research has determined that women's speaking behavior is rated as more polite and attractive and closer to the ideal than men's (Mulac & Lundell, 1986).

Men tend to interrupt and control conversations, be low context and high power in orientation, and speak to exhibit knowledge (Dindia, 1987; Kearney & Plax, 1996; Wood, 1994). While women's speech appears to be polite and deferential, men's speech is perceived as forceful and assertive (Kearney & Plax, 1996). Men interrupt women more during conversations and men control the discussion in mixed-sex groups (Dindia, 1987). Men tend to be low context, high power, masculine in speaking orientation, and individualistic (Kearney & Plax, 1996). The masculine style "is characterized by assertions of status and power" (p. 401). Wood (1994) believes that men often speak to exhibit knowledge, skill, or ability. Tannen (1990) concludes that men are more at ease with public speaking because they are more comfortable than most women in using talk to draw attention to themselves. Men tend to give long, detailed explanations to add credibility to a point, while they also convey how important they are by mentioning famous people or revealing some of their accomplishments (Tannen, 1990).

Carli, LaFleur and Loeber (1995) cite evidence which indicates that high-status individuals speak louder and more rapidly, are more likely to point, and maintain a high level of eye contact while speaking compared to low-status speakers. They further assert that a dominant nonverbal style is reflected in a loud voice, backward body lean, tense facial expression, and intrusive hand gestures (p. 1031). Although research supports these conclusions (Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas, 1993; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992), there continues to be debate among scholars whether these gender differences are related to status differences, and whether these differences can actually be perceived as related to status by audience members.

Powell, Hill and Hickson (cited in Hickson and Stacks, 1993) attempted to determine how males and females perceive public speakers of the same sex and the opposite sex. Variables such as attitudes of similarity, inferences of credibility, and interpersonal attraction were observed. Results indicated that only females viewing a female speaker made an assessment of social attraction (p. 21). Female speakers may also be the only individuals whose verbal disagreement is associated with being less likable and influential (Carli, et al., 1995). If competence is not enough for women to influence men, women should exhibit a nonverbal style that combines competence and social cues which include a relaxed, forward-leaning posture, smiling face, moderate eye contact, and nonintrusive gestures (Carli, et al., p. 1032).

Public speaking is particularly conducive to the masculine style of communicating (Kearney & Plax, 1996, p. 402). In summary, Carli, et al. (1995), Kearney and Plax (1996), Kramarae (1981), and Tannen (1990) agree that the accepted public speaking mode consists of a high-status, masculine orientation. Kramarae (cited in Canary & Hause, 1993) argues that the dominant mode of speech and interaction is based on the male style, because males have been members of the dominant social group. Lakoff (1975) has argued that women should adopt the male style. Yet, conflicting evidence indicates that female speech is often rated as more attractive and more closely approximating ideal speech (Pearson, et al., 1995). For example, Serbin, Zelkowitz, Doyle, Gold and Wheaton (1990) express that women excel in academic performance, as rated by teachers, because of their greater "social responsiveness."

Speech Organization

The feminine style of organization emcompasses emotion, intution, personal experience, and association (Campbell, 1986; Tannen, 1990). Linear and nonlinear patterns are two methods of organizing speech content (Brilhart, Bourhis, Miley & Berquist, 1992). Tannen (1990) contends that although men value linear logic, women prefer emotion, intuition, and personal experience. Campbell (1986) asserts that the feminine style of communication is more inductive or associative in logic, one in which speakers tend to draw from personal experiences and use rhetorical questions to build empathy and rapport with the audience. Research (Brilhart, et al., 1992; Campbell, 1986; Tannen, 1990) suggests that men and women use different methods of organizing speech material.

Language

Mulac and Lundell (1994), Tannen (1990) and Wood (1996) believe gender differences exist in language usage. Research indicates five areas of gender differences, including; (a) instrumental style versus expressive style (Mulac & Lundell, Wood, 1996), (b) amount of talk time (Hickson & Stacks, 1993; James & Drakich, 1993; Simkins-Bullock & Wildman, 1991; Spender, 1980; Stewart, Cooper, Stewart & Friedley, 1996), (c) tentative language (Arliss, 1991; Borisoff & Merrill, 1992; Carli, 1990; O-Barr & Atkins, 1980; Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995), (d) interruption (Hickson & Stacks; West & Zimmerman, 1993), and (e) use of voice (Arliss, 1991; Borisoff & Merrill; Henley, 1977; Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Wood, 1996).

Women are described as more submissive, more responsive to social pressure, and more responsive to the needs of others, whereas men are characterized by the opposite traits (Tannen, 1990, pp. 94-95). Mulac and Lundell (1994) summarize research by stating that male language is more instrumental and commanding, and female language is more socially positive and more accommodating (p. 299). When these researchers asked subjects to rate adults' written discourse, males used an instrumental style as a linguistic feature. Mulac and Lundell determined that men and women write in ways that differ linguistically (p. 308). Wood (1996) concludes that women's talk is generally more expressive and focused on feelings and personal issues, while men's talk is more instrumental and competitive. The sex-role norms are so pervasive that the public is inclined to behave in sex-appropriate ways (p. 110).

A review of research reveals that men talk more than women (James & Drakich, 1993). Fifty-six studies on amount of talk revealed that males talked more than females in 45% of the studies and, in some circumstances, in another 18% of the studies (James & Drakich, 1993). Only two studies found females talked more than males (Stewart, et al., 1996, p. 53). Simkins-Bullock and Wildman (1991) determined that males spend more time talking than females, and thus the results are consistent with past research findings. Hickson and Stacks (1993) state "a significant body of research now indicates that men not only speak longer, use more words in the total interaction, and participate more in group discussions, but they also talk more than do females" (p. 152). In the classroom, men talk more than women. Spender (cited in Kelly, 1991) reports that in the adult classroom women talk approximately half as much as men and occasionally less than this.

West and Zimmerman determined that men produce a majority of interruptions when speaking with women (cited in Marche & Peterson, 1993). March and Peterson discovered that in some situations, males and females produced similar amounts of interruptions. Factors such as the situation or the type of interruption may affect the results of interruption studies and gender differences (p. 406). Hickson and Stacks (1993) state that although research has reported that males talk more than females and interrupt more than females, such findings have been questioned.

Mulac, Wiemann, Widenmann and Gibson (1988), using the Speech Dialect Attitudinal Scale, determined that men were rated higher on aesthetic quality while women were rated higher on dynamism. When Zahn (1989) used the Speech Evaluation Instrument, a method by which speakers are rated using such terms as warm-cold and clear-unclear, gender differences regarding the attributes of attractiveness and dynamism were detected. Males more often leave off the "g" in words ending in "ing" (Hickson & Stacks, 1993). Their research indicates that males think it is masculine to use nonstandard, blue-collar English.

The "difference approach" to language and gender adheres to the belief that men adopt a competitive style in conversation, while women adopt a cooperative stance (Tannen, 1991). Tannen argues that women tend to cooperatively organize their language, while men are more likely to construct their talk competitively. Tannen believes that men tend to talk in public more, because they feel the need to establish or maintain their status in a group, whereas women talk more privately in order to maintain close relationships.

Tentative language. Qualifiers are words that soften the strength of statements (Pearson, et al., 1995). Communication may be viewed differently when either gender deviates from the expected norms (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992). O'Barr and Atkins (1980) suggest that when males use qualifiers these words are not as damaging to a male's credibility as to a female's credibility. When women use such speaking characteristics as tag questions, qualifiers, and ending a statement with a rising intonation, women speakers are negatively perceived (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992). However, when men use these same speaker behaviors, they are perceived to be polite and receiver-oriented (Kearney & Plax, 1996). Mulac, Lundell and Bradac (1986) found that women use more vocal fillers in their speech. Words such as "like," "right," and "you know" are examples (Ivy & Backlund, 1994). Although women use more vocal fillers, a study by Mulac and Lundell (1986) found that vocal fillers were more indicative of men's speech, because men use the fillers as a way to hold the floor and avoid silence.

Females have been observed using tag questions twice as often as males (Arliss, 1991). A tag question is a brief question added to a statement such as "isn't it?," or "doesn't it?" (Ivy & Backlund, 1994). Borisoff and Merrill (1992) observed that tag questions may also be used in an intimidating way to negate any potential opposition on the listener's part (p. 30). When using polite forms of words, women are more than three times as likely as men to phrase imperatives as questions (Arliss, 1991). Men tend to use more absolute, assertive communication, and use it in a more forceful, direct, and authoritative manner (Wood, 1994). Carli (1990) reports that women who speak more tentatively are more influential with men but less so with women. Tentative speech may be effective for women (p. 942). Nevertheless, Ivy and Backlund (1994) assert that all of the tentative language characteristics must be taken within the given context in which the communication occurs. Holmes (1990) discovered that both men and women were equally apt to use tentative language based on a particular situation.

The vocal dimension of the voice is a research component in language studies (Wood, 1994). Women's speaking voices tend to be higher pitched (Ivy & Backlund, 1994). Lower-pitched voices are viewed as being more credible and persuasive than higher-pitched voices (p. 162). Arliss (1991) also states that high-pitched voices tend to be perceived negatively in our culture. Various research studies (Pfeiffer, 1985) report that men actually have a greater range of pitches than women; however, men choose not to use the more "feminine"-sounding tones (Ivy and Backlund, 1994). In American culture, males tend to select a pitch that is comparatively lower than that of females (Arliss). Henley and Pfeiffer report that the higher pitch and softer volume of women speakers are not primarily attributable to biological differences (cited in Pearson, et al., 1995). Although there are some biological and hormonal differences between men and women regarding pitch, men tend to make themselves sound larger, while females make themselves sound smaller (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992). In summary, male speech is often assumed to be the "normal" speech (Tannen, 1990).

Expletives and Profanity. Males use more explectives and these expletives demonstrate social power when used by males (De Klerk, 1991; Selnow, 1985). Evidence suggests that profane expletives are: (a) used more often by male speakers, (b) evaluated more favorably by male listeners, and (c) demonstrate social power when used by males (Selnow, 1985). A classic study by Selnow (cited in Pearson, West & Turner, 1995) determined that men and women swear at about the same rate, but the behaviors are perceived differently. Staley maintains even when identical expletives were ascribed to both men and women, the strength of the expletives was judged to be greater for men (cited in Pearson, et al., 1995). Arliss (1991) believes that women use casual expressions and profanity in informal settings, but put on their "best behavior" in formal settings. De Klerk (1991) summarizes the research on expletive usage by stating that it reflects an androcentric bias.

Communication Apprehension and Stress

Evidence indicates that feminine speakers report higher levels of communication apprehension and develop different coping strategies for this stress (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993; Kearney & Plax, 1996). Communication apprehension is the fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication encounters (McCroskey, 1984). Although no major conclusions regarding gender differences and communication apprehension exist, research has shown that individuals with feminine behaviors tend to report higher levels of communication apprehension than individuals displaying masculine behaviors (Kearney & Plax, 1996).

Gerdes (1995) conducted a study to determine stress factors which affect women when they prepare for traditionally male professions. Results indicated that nontraditional women (i.e., those in traditionally male occupations) reported significantly more job tension than men (p. 796). Females with traditionally male professional goals were more susceptible than male students to stress symptoms such as overall job tension, physical illness, psychosomatic problems, and overall anxiety (p. 797).

Studies of coping with stress have compared women's style of coping to that of the male model whereby women's skills were judged inferior (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993). Women have different stressors in their lives, and therefore use different coping strategies (p. 306). Since women are more apt to report symptoms of distress, it may appear that women are more stressed and less adequate in their ability to cope (Borden & Berlin, 1990).

Humor

Gender differences exist regarding how men and women regard humor. High status speakers can use self-deprecating humor, while females tend to laugh harder than males (Chang & Gruner, 1981; Marche & Peterson, 1993). Humor is used as an attention-getting device in the introduction of public speeches and throughout the presentation in order to lighten the material and provide a connection with the audience (Brilhart, Bourhis, Miley, & Berquist, 1992). Humor research in the past has described the typical female as lacking the ability to appreciate humor or create it (Crawford & Gressley, 1991). However, various feminist researchers have drawn attention to this misrepresentation of women's humor (Kaufman & Blakely, 1980). Crawford and Gressley required male and female participants to complete a 68-item questionnaire regarding humor. Both male and female respondents were more likely to choose a male model as embodying a good sense of humor and were more likely to describe males as creative (p. 228). Arliss (1991) reports that studies indicate that men and women choose a man when describing the "wittiest person" they know.

Speakers with high status and ethos can use self-deprecating humor without any risk to their credibility (Chang & Gruner, 1981). The results conclude that without pre-established high status, the self-disparager will be perceived as less capable (p. 420). Arliss (1991) notes that women often rely on self-deprecating humor for laughs and may be inadvertently reinforcing the perception of low status in themselves.

Research reports differences between men and women regarding the use of humor. Women prefer anecdotes and stories more than males do (Crawford & Gressley, 1991). Riddell (1989) discovered that a portion of male humor involves the derogation of women. Marche and Peterson (1993) and Arliss (1991) report evidence which suggests that females laugh harder and more frequently than males. Men, on the other hand, have been presented in literature as not likely to respond to comments made by their partner or to respond slowly (Arliss, p. 797).

Nonverbal Communication

Henley (1977), Knapp and Hall (1992) and Richmond, McCroskey and Payne (1991) believe gender differences exist in nonverbal communication. Research indicates five areas of gender differences, including: (a) appearance (Feingold, 1990; Hoffman, 1977; Knapp & Hall), (b) gestures and facial expression (Arliss, 1991; Kearney & Plax, 1996; Wood, 1994), (c) eye contact (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992; Pearson, et al., 1995), (d) posture and body movement (Hickson & Stacks, 1993; Stewart, et al., 1996), and (e) paralingusitics (Arliss, 1991; Burgoon, Buller, & Woodall, 1989; Ray, 1986; Tannen, 1990).

In general, women are more sensitive to nonverbal cues than men. A review of gender research determined that men compared to women: (a) have less skill in sending and receiving emotional cues, (b) are less likely to notice and be influenced by people's appearance, (c) have less expressive faces and fewer expressive gestures, and (d) look at others less (Knapp & Hall, 1992, p. 390). Knapp and Hall (1992) believe that a woman's nonverbal repertoire conveys more openness, sensitivity, and involvement. Henley (1977) concluded that these traits may work against women. Henley has hypothesized that females nonverbally communicate from a lower-status position, while males gain and maintain their higher status through the use of nonverbal symbols. Henley (cited in Hickson & Stacks, 1993) states, "When around men, many women cross and uncross their legs incessantly, modify their voices, open their eyes dramatically, signifying animated interest in the male, and may also play with their hair" (p. 131).

Appearance. Hoffman (1977), Raines, Hechtman and Rosenthal (1990), and Richmond, et al. (1991) believe that appearance standards differ for men and women. The manner in which the audience responds to the message of the speaker is determined by how the audience rates the speaker in respect to attractiveness (Knapp & Hall, 1992). Hickson and Stacks (1993) report that attractiveness is more important for female speakers than male speakers. Research reported in Stewart, et al., (1996) suggests that attractive females and males are more effective than unattractive males and females in influencing others. However, males are allowed to be more attractive than females and still retain their credibility (p. 78).

Females may have to meet higher attractiveness standards to be perceived as credible than do males (Richmond, et al., 1991). Women who fall short of cultural ideas of attractiveness are judged more negatively than men who do not match the stereotypes (Feingold, 1990). Hoffman (1977) believes that very attractive women are perceived as less effective persuaders than unattractive women. Men do not seem to have their attractiveness related to their credibility (Stewart, et al., 1996, p. 79).

Clothing is an aspect related to appearance. Wood (1994) believes that clothing is designed to call attention to women's bodies and make them attractive to viewers. In contrast, men's clothing de-emphasizes physical appearance and enables activity (Wood, 1994). Morganosky and Creekmore determined that clothing awareness and clothing attractiveness were related to leadership traits for both males and females (cited in Pearson, et al., 1995).

Gestures and facial expressions. While both men and women use gestures while speaking, men tend to use more gestures (Stewart, et al., 1996, p. 80). Men use larger, more forceful gestures, and men use these gestures to control (Kearney & Plax, 1996; Major, Schmidlin & Williams, 1990; Wood, 1994). Pearson, et al., (1995) argue that differences in the use of gestures between men and women are so evident that the traits of masculinity and femininity can be signified on the basis of gestures alone. Males tend to use more dominant gestures and movements when communicating with females, while females tend to use more submissive-type gestures (Richmond, et al., 1991). Dominant gestures such as pointing, sweeping motions, and the closed fist are gestures prone to the male (Stewart, et al., 1996). Major, et al. (1990) believe that men use more forceful gestures to assert their ideas. Kearney and Plax (1996) state that men's gestures are larger and more intense. Other researchers (Spain, 1992; Tannen, 1990b) believe that men are also more likely than women to use gestures to symbolize control (cited in Wood, 1994). Burgoon, Buller, & Woodall (1989) found that women use more palms-up gestures and men use more pointing gestures. The palms-up gesture usually accompanies the shrug movement, which signifies hesitancy or uncertainty (p. 205).

Women tend to display feelings more clearly, and women are more skilled than men in interpreting others' emotions (Wood, 1994). Wood summarized research in the area of kinesics (i.e., gestures) and concluded that women use fewer one-handed gestures, use gestures which signify playing with hair or clothing, and use fewer gestures than men. Men tend to exhibit greater leg and foot movement and use more sweeping hand gestures than women (p. 127).

In general, women use more facial expressions than men and also engage in more overall eye contact (Arliss, 1991; Hickson & Stacks, 1993; Wood, 1994). Two types of nonverbal facial expressions exist, presentational and representational (Arliss, 1991, p. 78). Presentational facial expressions are those that are intentionally delivered to communicate particular emotions, whereas representational facial expressions are those closely aligned to actual emotional states (Arliss, 1991). Studies reported in Hickson and Stacks reveal that women tend to show their emotions in their facial expressions more than men. Various researchers (cited in Wood) have also determined that women receive more facial expressions of interest and friendliness. In a summary of facial expression research, Pearson, et al., (1995) determined that women use more facial expressions, are better at conveying emotions, and demonstrate superior recognition memory of their own expressions. Men, however, use fewer facial expressions, do not convey emotions through their faces, and do not recall their own facial expressions (p. 123).

Eye contact. Women use more eye contact with the audience while men engage in more staring behavior (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992; Person, et al., 1995). Generally, more dominant individuals receive more eye contact than less dominant ones (Knapp & Hall, 1992). The dominant individual will gaze less while listening to others and more while speaking (p. 307). Females seem to look more than males in almost all measures of gaze frequency, duration, and reciprocity (p. 307). Pearson, et al., (1995) report that females have more frequent eye contact during conversations than males. Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall (1989) indicate that women are uncomfortable when they cannot see their conversational partner. Borisoff and Merrill (1992) cite research (Henley) that states women and other subordinates look at others more, but avert their eyes when looked at (p. 53). Research indicates that men engage in more staring behavior than women, and men do not appear disturbed when people do not watch them (p. 121). Pearson maintains women rarely engage in staring, while men use it to challenge others, particularly other men, and to assert their status (cited in Wood, 1994).

Interpretation of eye-contact and eye-gazing research is complicated, because eye contact may connote degrees of dominance or status, or degrees of affiliation and openness (Knapp & Hall, 1992). When women engage in eye contact, they use their eyes in specific patterns (Hickson & Stacks, 1993). Women were found more likely than men to move their eyes in both directions (p. 20). Women were found not to be as frequent left or right movers (Knapp & Hall, 1992).

Posture and body movement. In general, men have more open body posture, while women have more closed body posture (Pearson, et al., 1995). Spain (1992) has determined that the manner in which space is used in the United States tends to designate lesser status for women and minorities. Research summarized in Pearson, et al., (1995) indicate that women have more closed body positions, engage in less body lean and maintain their arms closer to their body. Men, on the other hand, have more open body positions, engage in a backward lean, and hold their arms away from their bodies (p. 126). Baglan and Nelson, (cited in Burgoon, Buller & Woodall, 1989) state that it may be more appropriate for men to lean backward and to display more relaxation in their posture than women (p. 206).

Paralinguistics. Men use a limited pitch range, are judged more intelligent, competent, and socially attractive (Arliss, 1991; Street, Brady & Lee, 1984; Wood, 1994). DeVito (1994) describes paralinguistics as the vocal (but nonverbal) aspect of speech. Listeners of a person's voice usually identify both the race and the gender of the speaker simply by the paralinguistic cues (Tannen, 1990). Male speakers have been observed to use a limited pitch range compared to female speakers (Arliss, 1991). The female's pitch range is perceived to be more emotional and excitable, while the male pitch range creates the perception that men are stable (p. 92). When subjects were asked to make judgments about the voices they heard while participating in a study, women with breathy, tense voices were judged to be pretty, petite, shallow, and unintelligent. On the other hand, Addington believes that men with throaty, tense voices were judged to be mature, masculine, and intelligent (cited in Wood, 1994). When both men and women had "flat" voices, they were perceived as cold, withdrawn, and masculine (Knapp & Hall, 1992). Those individuals possessing nasal voices were perceived as possessing socially undesirable attributes (Pearson, et al., 1995.). Voices which are deep, loud, moderately fast, unaccented, and clearly articulated are perceived as more dominant (Burgoon, et al., 1989).

The rate of speech affects how an audience perceives a speaker (Richmond, et al., 1991). Ray (1986) determined that rates of speech were related to judgments of competence, resulting in more rapid rates associated with greater competence. The competent speaker is one who exhibits a higher pitch range and is louder (Knapp & Hall, 1992, p. 352). Street, et al., (1984) report that males were rated as significantly more competent and socially attractive when the rate of speech was fast to moderate.

Vocal fillers such as "like," "um," and "ah," are examples of another form of paralingustics (Richmond, et al., 1991). Siegman (1987) believes that men use more assertive speech in general. Beckman (1991) maintains the speech of men has reportedly more "ah" errors (cited in Hickson & Stacks, 1993). The filled pause is associated with hesitant speech (Knapp and Hall, 1992). The filled pause may be motivated by the wish to keep the speaker's turn from being taken or may reflect men's uncomfortableness with speaking (p. 348).

Influence and Persausibility

Research indicates (Burgoon, et al, 1989; Carli, et al., 1995; Powers; 1993) that gender differences in influence strategies and persausibility do exist. Men are more effective persuaders, while women are more responsive to persuasive messages (Carli, et al., 1995). Carli, et al., (1995) indicate that because of men's higher status, displays of dominance by men are more effective at influencing other people than such displays by women, particularly with a male audience (p. 1030). Carli (1989) found that both women and men used more stereotypically masculine styles of influence when paired with a man, and feminine styles of influence when paired with a woman. Carli also found that women are more influenced by persuasive messages and pressure to conform to group norms. The lower the self-confidence, the greater the use of indirect influence strategies (Steil & Weltman, 1992). Andrews (1987) found women less self-confident in their ability to present their arguments persuasively as they approached the task, and women evaluated their performance less positively than men after completing their message (p. 382).

Gender differences regarding deceptive persuasive messages exist. If the persuasive message is partially or fully composed of deceptive material, females appear to be more sensitive to relational deception than males and report more negative attitudes toward and perceptions of the deceiver's character, competence, and sociability (Powers, 1993, p. 335). However, conflicting evidence exists which supports the belief that women are less accurate detectors of deception. Because women are more likely than men to decode the meaning intended by the source, they are less aware of unconscious nonverbal behaviors (Burgoon, et al., 1989). Therefore, women may be less accurate detectors of deception (p. 286). However, both males and females view attempts at political manipulation by members of their own gender more positively than by members of the opposite sex (Drory & Beaty, 1991).

Pearce and Natalle (1993) assert that much of the research on gender differences and persuasibility between 1930-1986 seems to indicate that women are generally more persuasible than men. Textbooks often lead students to believe that gender is a predictor of persuasibility (p. 69). After years of research, "women and men are still treated as distinct audiences requiring specific appeals and messages" (p. 68).

Self-Evaluation

Women evaluate themselves more critically, have lower expectations for success, and judge men to be more competent than women (Clark, 1993; Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989;) Studies by Lenney and McMahan (cited in Daubman, Heatherington, & Ahn, 1992) found that college women provided lower self-evaluations than men on tasks which were perceived as "masculine." However, when the tasks were perceived as "feminine," no gender differences were reported. Lenney also discovered that women are more likely to show a lack of confidence when they are compared to a highly competent other. Sleeper and Migro (cited in Clark, 1993) state that women have lower expectations of success when they compare themselves to others whom they view as skilled at a task. Heilman and Fram (cited in Daubman, et al., 1992) believe that both male and female subjects judged men to be more competent than women. These gender differences are more salient when set in a competitive framework (p. 188).

Clark (1993) summarizes the research by stating that women expect less success than men in unfamiliar or male-dominated activities but not in activities with which they are familiar or in which they feel as competent as the comparison group. Additional research (Beyer, 1990; Bridges, 1988) suggests that women evaluate themselves as highly as men do on tasks with which they feel familiar (Clark, 1993, p. 555).

Evaluation

Numerous researchers (Basow & Silberg, 1987; Bennett, 1982; Martin, 1984) have found sex differences in student evaluations (cited in Hensel, 1991). The nearly universal conclusion based on research findings is that women are evaluated less favorably than men (Eagly, Mladinic, & Otto, 1991; Lamude & Daniels, 1993; Simeone, 1987; Swim, 1993). Research in the area of evaluation has been conducted from the perspectives of the instructor evaluating the student, and the student evaluating the public speaking ability of the professor. Swim (1993) concludes that people evaluate women less favorably than men for identical work. Research has shown that teachers do not perceive stereotypically feminine traits in high-achieving students (Benz, Pfeiffer, & Newman, 1981). Both male and female high achievers are perceived as displaying androgynous or stereotypically masculine behaviors (Stewart, et al., 1996, p. 157).

Swim (1993) indicates that individuals are influenced by gender stereotypes when making judgments, and that men are more reliant on physical appearance than women. However, several studies (Ivy, 1993; Pearson, 1991) indicate that females receive higher grades than males for their classroom speeches. Pearson, et al., (1991) show that feminine individuals receive higher grades than masculine individuals (p. 208). Swim, Borgida, Maruyama and Myers (1989) indicate that women are judged more favorably than men. Eagly, Mladinic and Otto (1991) discovered that evaluations of women are more positive than the evaluations of men (p. 211). An analysis of 14 studies measuring social and personality-development presentation determined that female students were expected to outperform their male counterparts (Ivy & Backlund, 1994)

"The bulk of research indicates that women are likely to be evaluated more harshly than men, particularly in traditionally male areas. They are seen as having less authority, and their opinions are accepted less readily" (Simeone, cited in Tack and Patitu, 1992, p. 37). Lamude and Daniels (1993) report that the sex of a person is related to the manner in which he/she is evaluated regarding communication competence. Results indicate that men receive more favorable evaluations than women, particularly when women are the evaluators (p. 51). However, Zahn (1989) confirms that rating of speakers regarding appropriate language behavior is not solely based on sex, but also on factors such as occupation, success, and power.

Research Question 2 Results

Learning Styles

The second research question stated: "what does the literature yield regarding women's preferred styles of learning?" To determine the answer to this question, a series of reviews of literature were conducted.

Women's Way of Knowing

Research indicates that women's learning styles differ from men's approach to learning (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Claxton & Murrell, 1987; K. Dunn, 1993; Feingold, 1992; Gilligan, 1982; Hunter, 1989). Women prefer affliation, an interpersonal style, auditory instruction, a participatory environment, and a connected knowing orientation, wheras men prefer separation, an impersonal style, kinesthetic instruction, an avoidant environment, and a separate style of knowing (Baxter-Magolda; 1992; Belenky, et al., 1986; R. Dunn, 1993; Gilligan, 1982). In addition, women prefer global orientations towards learning, strive for close relationships, focus on verbal and language usage, and maintain a cooperative approach to decision making. Men, however, prefer analytical orientations towards learning, strive to be independent agents of the world, focus on quantitative and spatial abilites, and maintain a competitive approach to decision making (Claxton & Murrell; 1987; Feingold, 1992; Smith, Morrison & Wolf, 1994; Woike, 1994). Women prefer integration and relation, while men prefer differentiation and analysis (Woike, 1994)

Keefe (cited in Cooper, 1995) defines learning styles as "cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment" (p. 89). Hunter (1989) argues that women have different ways of approaching and sharing knowledge. Belenky, et al., (1986) posit that the college classroom conforms to the androcentric academic culture. Philbin, Meier, Huffman and Boverie (1995) believe while men prefer the assimilator style of learning, women prefer this style the least.

Research in the area of decision-making conducted by Schaef (cited in Sullivan, 1993) indicates that two approaches to decision-making exist: (a) the White Male System, which is a competitive approach to decision-making and, (b) the Female System, which is a cooperative approach to decision-making. The White Male System assumes the purpose of communication is to win and stay one-up, while the Female System believes communication is the forming of bridges (p. 534). The role of personal experience is very much present in women's decision-making (Sullivan, p. 536). Caretakers cooperate with their subjects in making decisions, and the relationship between the caregiver and the subject is a valued one (Sullivan, 1993).

Woike (1994) uses Bakan's (1966) terms of agency and communion to describe gender differences in orientation. For example, men strive to be independent agents in the world, whereas women desire to form close relationships (p. 142). Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994) indicate that women tend to be more socially conscious and more concerned about issues related to relationships than males (p. 720).

Philbin, Meier, Huffman and Boverie (1995) demonstrate that women have different learning styles. Their research indicates that men's preferred styles are more connected to traditional education, while women's styles of learning are not (p. 485). Substantial evidence indicates that males are activity-centered, whereas females are more oriented to the exploration of thoughts and feelings (Burleson & Samter, 1992). No conclusive evidence exists which indicates that true gender differences between social-interaction preferences and academic performance occur (p. 172).

Claxton and Murrell's personality model is relevant to the study of gender differences in learning styles (1987). The broad categories of field-independent (analytical) and field-sensitive (global) have gender implications in that they suggest that men tend to be more field independent and want to work alone, whereas women are more field-sensitive and prefer to view ideas in a larger context. Instructors should consider the field-independence or field-sensitive orientation of their students in order to develop teaching strategies to promote learning in all students (Claxton & Murrell, 1987).

Fuhrmann and Grasha (1983) developed a technique to aid in the understanding of learning styles based on the roles students play in the classroom (p. 121). These learning styles relate to the Claxton and Murrell (1987) study whereby the social-interaction model is used to analyze students' behavior as influenced by classroom interaction and environment. A total of six learning styles have been identified: (a) independent, (b) avoidant, (c) collaborative, (d) dependent, (e) competitive, and (f) participant. Andrews suggests that students may benefit from teaching methods that fit their styles (cited in Fuhrmann & Grasha, 1983). Kraft (cited in Fuhrmann & Grasha) believes women are slightly more dependent and much more participatory, while men are competitive, avoidant, and independent to a higher degree.

Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) interviewed 135 women to ascertain how women prefer to learn. They argue ". . . conceptions of knowledge and truth that are accepted and articulated today have been shaped throughout history by the male-dominated majority culture" (p. 5). In order to understand how women conform to the androcentric academic culture, they identified five ways of knowing, including silence, received knowledge, subjective knowledge, procedural knowledge, and constructed knowledge.

These five cognitive developmental perspectives were formulated according to the women's approaches to knowledge. The first category is silence. Silence is rarely found in college students, however some community college students in the Belenky, et al. study confessed to blindly accepting or rejecting the views of authority figures or new information (K. Dunn, 1993). The second type of knowing, received knowledge, is described as students believing the existence of right answers and assuming that truth can be found by the experts. The third category is subjective knowledge. Students who operate from the perspective of subjective knowledge believe their own opinion is valid and view knowledge as already existing within themselves. The fourth category is procedural knowledge. Procedural knowledge refers to the phase when students begin to believe that some types of knowledge have more validity than others. Through testing hypotheses and questioning theories, these students develop their own personal perspectives. The fifth category is constructed knowledge (Belenky et al., 1986). Constructed knowledge allows students to "learn to construct their own knowledge using both subjective and objective methods for arriving at their own positions" (K. Dunn, p. 43).

Procedural knowledge exists in two types: separate and connected (Belenky, et al., 1986). Separate knowing involves individuals possessing qualities such as tough-mindedness, critical thinking skills, and the belief in the assumption that everyone may be wrong. "Separate knowers' procedures for making meaning are strictly impersonal" (Belenky, et al., 1986, p. 109). Connected knowers think that knowledge comes from personal experience rather than the declarations of authorities. Belenky, et al. believe that "connected knowers seek to understand other people's ideas in the other people's terms rather than in their own terms" (pp. 123-124). Woike (1994) defines these two orientations to the world as (a) being autonomous, independent, and separate from others and (b) being relational, interdependent, and connected to others.

Women tend to use the connected knowing-paradigm, although Belenky, et al. (1986) state "the two modes may be gender-related: It is possible that more women than men tip toward connected knowing and more men than women toward separate knowing" (p.102-103). They admit that no men were interviewed during the study. However, researchers (Austin & Baldwin, 1991; Gilligan, 1982; Woike, 1994) continue to argue that the developmental processes for women move towards "connected knowing." Austin and Baldwin (1991) define connected knowing "whereby relationships are based on trust, empathy, mutual support, and a desire to understand the ideas and experiences of others (p. 75).

From the structured interviews of the female subjects, Belenky, et al. (1986) were able to determine ten bimodal educational dialectics which illustrate the modes of thought of women and men. The modes include categories such as process versus goal orientation, rational versus intuitive, inner versus outer, and impersonal versus personal. Although all of the educational dialectics could be valuable in the classroom, the researchers suspected that "in women one mode often predominates, whereas conventional educational practice favors the other mode" (Belenky, et al., 1986, p. 16). According to Belenky, et al., connected knowers form "bonds of attachment" by understanding other people's ways of thinking and by seeking "commonality of experience" (p. 178).

Woike (1994) believes two types of learning styles exist: (a) differentiation, and (b) integration. Differentiation involves perceiving social objects as different, separate, and independent, whereas integration pertains to perceiving social objects as similar, connected, and interdependent (p. 143). Woike argues that all individuals must use both differentiation and integration in order to understand their social environments. However, theorists such as Gilligan and Chodorow (cited in Woike, p. 144) suggest that women adopt a more communal orientation, while men find such a communal perspective threatening and engage in behaviors which encourage a sense of autonomy and distance.

Additional learning-style considerations exist to help plan teaching strategies that encourage learning in all students. Anderson (cited in Anderson & Adams, 1992) analyzed the differences between analytical and relational learners, noting that women prefer the relational style while men favor the analytical. The analytical style consists of such characteristics as structured and abstract thinking, task-orientation, persistence, and focus on details (p. 25). Feingold (1992) reports that males are more variable than females in quantitative and spatial abilities. In contrast to the analytical style, the relational style embodies such attributes as intuitive thinking, enhanced verbal skills, memory for verbally presented information, and ease of learning information presented within a social context (Anderson & Adams, 1992). Feingold states that women are more variable in verbal ability and language usage (p. 79). A meta-analysis of 165 studies investigating gender differences in verbal ability noted that women are slightly superior to men (Hyde & Lynn, 1988).

In summary, feminine socialization is concerned with caring for others and responding to needs, whereas masculine socialization is interested in being fair to others and respecting their rights (Wood, 1994). Women's thought is described as flexible and variable, with women engaging in the collection and appreciation of each other's ideas (p. 74). Men's thought is described as linear and sequential, with men tending to debate and evaluate each other's opinions (Adams, 1992). The acceptance of women's ways of knowing should not be considered as a deficit to be remedied, but as a difference to be responded to (Adams, p. 10). Luttrell (1993) argues that instructors "must acknowledge the politics of being female when [we] consider how schools shortchange girls, moving beyond analyses based simply on female socialization or gender-identity development" (p. 538).

Feminist pedagogy may be one of the teaching methodologies by which instructors can take into account the role of the female learner (Shrewsbury, 1993a). Schnidedwind (1993) states, "Research on women's manner of thinking, problem solving, and communication suggests that students' intellectual development would be enhanced in [a feminist classroom] which provides another reason for teaching feminist process" (p. 18). Subsequently, K. Dunn (1993) reveals that transition through Belenky, et al.'s, (1986) five ways of knowing corresponds with progression through college. For example, first year students are more likely to use received or subjective knowledge, while juniors and seniors are moving toward constructed knowledge. "Feminist pedagogy helps . . . elicit and attend to students' cognitive development and personal experience" (K. Dunn, 1993, p. 44). Yet, Luttrell (1993) warns educators that much more information about the politics of women's knowing needs to be gathered before feminist pedagogical practices are used in the classroom.

Research Question 3 Results

Public Speaking Instruction

The third research question stated: "what does the literature yield regarding public speaking instruction at institutions of higher education and the inclusion of women's styles of learning?" To determine the answers to the third research question, the following steps were taken: (a) extensive reviews of the literature were conducted, and (b) an analysis of public speaking textbooks and tradebooks was undertaken.

Public Speaking Course Content

The definition of communication is gender-biased, male-centered, and revolves around the principle of the "good man speaking well" approach to communication (Nudd, 1991; Peterson, 1991; Shepherd, 1992; Vonnegut, 1992). Fox-Genovese (1989), K. Foss (1992), and S. Foss (1992) believe that the public speaking course is taught from a male perspective. Nudd (1991) acknowledges the belief posited by Fetterly in 1978 that the presence of the androcentric literary canon teaches men and women to think like men and identify with the men's point of view (p. 49). The traditional view of communication is one of influence (DeVito, 1994). "Course content is gender-insensitive when it emphasizes, neglects, devalues, or misrepresents experiences, concerns, and/or perspectives typically associated with one sex" (Wood & Lenze, 1991a, p. 16). Although over 126 published definitions of communication exist, feminist scholars such as K. Foss (1992) and S. Foss (1992) believe that these definitions of communication may reflect a gender bias by affirming the male experience and excluding and negating the female perspective (Shepherd, 1992).

Fox-Genovese (1989) believes that the rules of public speaking have been gender-specific. More than 2,000 years ago, Aristotle, considered to be the father of communication studies, defined rhetoric as "the faculty of observing in any case the available means of persuasion" (Shepherd, 1992, p. 203). Aristotle described women as "a deformity, a misbegotten male" (Mulvaney, 1994, p. 2). Rhetoric is still seen today as the ability to influence people (Kearney & Plax, 1996). Aristotle's concepts of logos, pathos, and ethos form the cornerstones of the public speaking course (Thomas, 1993). Logos refers to logic, pathos relates to the understanding of emotion, and ethos relates to character (Thomas, 1993). ". . . Using logos, pathos and ethos as critical measures of a speech's effectiveness may serve to further exclude several forms of women's speech. . . "(p. 51).

Vonnegut (1992) further argues that Aristotle's audience consisted of free, white, male citizens. According to Aristotle (cited in Vonnegut, 1992), the style of speech should be clear, correct, and appropriate. Vonnegut believes if Aristotle's theory of evaluation was to be understood in the twentieth century, the described style would reflect the elite, educated male (p. 30). Recent approaches to communication consider discourse to be in the context of the linked concepts of power and domination (Shepherd, 1992). Viewing the definition of communication from this perspective makes it masculinely biased (Shepherd, 1992). "A cursory glance through [communication] journals over the years reveals the predominance of persuasion studies" (Shepherd, p. 210). Researchers who are working in the androcentric tradition are quick to label situations as primarily persuasive (p. 210).

A "different voice" of communication has been posited by Gilligan (1982). From the female voices in Gilligan's study, communication has been labeled the "language of responsibility" and is one of maintaining social relationships, as opposed to the exertion of social influence. Communicators who adopt the feminine viewpoint define communication as acting responsibly toward each other, whereas communicators who adopt the masculine viewpoint define communication as accomplishing personal goals (Shepherd, 1992).

Need for Inclusive Instructional Strategies in Public Speaking

Evidence supports the assumption that public speaking is taught from an androcentric pedagogical slant (K. Foss, 1992; S. Foss, 1992; Makau, 1992; Rakow, 1992; Thomas, 1993). Traditional instructional strategies used in the public speaking course, in addition to the content of the course material, have tended to exclude women (Vonnegut, 1992). Campbell asserts (1991) that public speaking courses are intended to empower students by giving them a voice in situations such as interviewing, interpersonal relations, and social occasions. To assure that women have greater input and more influence in the area of public speaking, educators should become aware of strategies that may make the college classroom more inclusive of women (Shrewsbury, 1993; Wood, 1993; Wood & Lenze, 1991). Although an early article by Kramer (cited in Vonnegut, 1992) argued for the need for more scholarship analyzing the differences between men and women speakers, public speaking courses still tend to exclude women.

Thomas believes that the study of rhetoric is confined primarily to speeches produced by white males. The tradition of public speaking is often of the "good man speaking well" and of the study of "great men" in the history of public address (Peterson, 1991). Thomas elaborates on this premise by stating that when women do achieve what is commonplace for men, they are thought of as exceptional cases. The standards of eloquence and effective public speaking remain masculine, and while men are expected to meet them, women are only expected to meet them when they are exceptional women (Thomas, p. 47).

Curriculum Revisions of Communication Courses

K. Foss (1993), S. Foss (1993), Helle (1994), Makau (1993), Peterson (1991), Rakow (1993), Thomas (1993), and Vonnegut (1992) present strategies to create a more inclusive classroom and to revise the curriculum. S. Foss developed a four part revision of the public speaking course, while Peterson (1991) and Griffin (1993) provide some additional insights into the revision process. K. Foss and Vonnegut believe a revision of the public address course is necessary. Makau provides four elements necessary for a revision of an argumentation course. Examples of revisions of rhetorical courses are provided by Foss and Griffin (1992) and Foss, Foss and Trapp (1991).

Shepherd (1992) believes that before curriculum revision can occur, researchers need to conceive of a definition of communication which incorporates both masculine and feminine views. "Moving toward a transcendent definition of communication will require more than the acknowledgment of feminine concerns as legitimate, but somehow secondary, for that would only foster the continuation of a masculinely biased view of message effectiveness and communication competence" (Shepherd, p. 216). A number of revisionist feminist theorists (Foss & Foss, 1988; Gregg, 1987; Spitzack & Carter, 1988) argue that women's voices have been silenced by the dominant culture (cited in Sullivan, 1993). Kramarae (1981) believes that if women want to be heard in society, they must speak the language of the dominant culture.

S. Foss (1993) developed a revision of the traditional public speaking course to incorporate feminist and Afrocentric perspectives. S. Foss changed the course to include the following four elements: (a) public speaking goals, (b) organizational patterns, (c) textbook selection, and (d) assignments (pp. 54-60). The first element of revision includes the development of five speaking goals instead of the three traditional primary speaking goals. This was done because the traditional goals to persuade, to inform, and to celebrate, may not take into consideration the learning styles of the socially diverse. The revised goals include the following: (a) articulating a perspective, (b) asserting individuality, (c) maintaining community, (d) discovering knowledge or belief, and (e) resisting (p. 55).

The second element of revision includes the teaching of organizational patterns. Traditional patterns of public speaking organization include the motivated-sequence pattern, the chronological pattern, the problem-solution pattern, and the topical pattern. Patterns that include the feminist and Afrocentric perspectives include the metaphor pattern, the narrative pattern, and the complementary-opposite pattern (S. Foss, 1993, p. 56).

The third element of revision concerns textbook selection. S. Foss (1993) believes that handouts should take the place of a textbook, since there is currently no public speaking textbook written from a feminist perspective.

The fourth element of revision concerns giving students some control over the types of assignments completed. "The openness of the assignments means that not all of the speeches will fit the traditional mode of public speaking . . ."(p. 59). The traditional manner in which public address has been taught includes the study of outstanding historic models of speechmaking (K. Foss, 1993). Vonnegut (1992) argues that traditional theories have excluded almost all rhetoric produced outside the dominant groups in society. More recently, educators have demonstrated the importance of studying contemporary texts rather than relying on historical speeches (K. Foss, 1993). For example, in the past educators have simply added speeches by women to the public speaking class and hoped it might become more sensitive to women's needs (Peterson, 1991). The speeches by women which were used in these inclusive classrooms tended to be those of a few famous speakers such as Susan B. Anthony, Margaret Thatcher, and Geraldine Ferraro (Vonnegut, 1992). Although scholars have made progress toward a more inclusive rhetorical theory, they continue to ignore women's voices during the founding of the nation (Vonnegut, 1992). Peterson warns educators that simply adding female speakers to a curriculum may only cause participants to blame women for not being like men.

Griffin (1993) believes that when women's communication styles are compared to the traditional framework they tend to become distorted, devalued, and misunderstood (p. 158). If the female perspective was included within the study of communication, scholars would be able to develop theories that better explain women's experiences (Griffin, 1993). K. Foss (1993) revised a public address course by including a variety of formal and informal texts and requiring students to understand the text rather than to analyze the events associated with famous speeches. Vonnegut (1992) believes that altering the traditional organization of courses based on important periods of male history to create a more inclusive course, would improve the public address curriculum. A variety of rhetorical forms need to be analyzed, such as private forms of communication, instead of relying on the public message (p. 34).

A primary goal of feminist scholarship is to discover if existing rhetorical principles exclude women and to construct alternative theories which acknowledge the role of women (Foss & Griffin, 1992). Rhetorical courses should be revised to include rhetorical theories designed by feminist writers (Foss & Griffin, 1992). K. Burke's rhetorical theory, which is described as one of domination, is an example of mainstream rhetorical theory. The rhetorical theory posited by Starhawk, a feminist writer, contends that no rhetorical act can occur outside the context of interconnectedness (p. 331). Burke's notion of identification is replaced with that of interconnection. While Foss and Griffin do not want to ignore the voluminous works of Burke, they believe that mainstream rhetorical theory should be presented as a patriarchal one.

Foss, Foss and Trapp (1991) identify two stages in the feminist revision of rhetoric. First, there is the inclusion stage, which emphasizes women's valuable contributions to communication. Second, there is the revisionist stage, which requires traditional rhetorical frameworks to be revised and reformulated (p. 533). Griffin (1993) contends that the feminist rhetorical perspective of women as communicators should continue to be explored.

Makau (1992) maintains that the argumentation course needs revision, and offers various strategies for improvement. Formal competitive debate is the crux of a traditional argumentation course; however, the transformed course would be designed to create understanding, not to promote winning (Makau, 1992). "Students were taught to exploit, rather than develop empathy and compassion" (Makau, 1992, p. 81). The transformed course would require the sharing of resources to build a sense of collaboration and community. Grades would not be assigned in relation to other students' performance; rather, students would be judged by their ability to create audience understanding. A final point of revision would include in the course the discussion of informal argumentation (p. 86).

Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks

Textbooks have consistently ignored the discoveries of females, and continue to present a majority of male examples (Ferree & Hall, 1990; Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Peterson & Kroner, 1992; Wood, 1994). Gallo (1987) and Sadker and Sadker (1981, 1994) believe that college textbooks and college catalogs present men and women in stereotypical ways. Textbooks present material with an androcentric bias where women are often devalued, ignored, and presented in stereotypical ways (Andrews & Zasefsky, 1989; Lucaites, 1989; Nudd, 1991; Reid, 1989; Shepherd, 1992; Stewart, et al., 1996; Wood & Lenze, 1991).

Textbooks play an important role in disseminating information to students. Theories of interpersonal relationships, small group communication, and public speaking seldom represent the experiences of women (Bowen & Wyatt, 1993). The scarcity of women's voices in public address and public speaking courses results in part from the lack of readily available texts (Ivy & Backlund, 1994). A study of 14 public speaking textbooks completed by Campbell (1991) revealed that 44 speeches were by women and 53 speech by men (p. 34). If non-student speeches are counted, in five texts only 5 speeches were presented by women speakers compared to 28 speeches by men in over 12 texts (Campbell, 1991).

Sources such as Vital speeches of the day and Representative American speeches have relatively poor representation of speechmaking by contemporary women (Campbell, 1991). The 1937 text, Public speaking for women (cited in Thomas, 1993) describes feminine oratorical weaknesses as including a high pitched voice, uninteresting phraseology, and formless arrangement of speech material (p. 49). Thomas asserts that while textbooks are no longer overtly sexist, they still incorporate the same androcentric standards for speaking excellence. For example, Shepherd (1992) contends there is an androcentric nature in researchers in their creation of definitions of communication.

Public address anthologies, such as Lucaites (1989) pay a disparate amount of attention to women speakers. Out of 476 pages, 43 pages were dedicated to works by women, followed by 24 out of 286, and finally, 28 out of 753 for each of these texts respectively. In a collection of critical studies of public address, only two of the 48 essays are about women (Vonnegut, 1992). Nudd (1991) believes that educators and students should not overlook the androcentric bias in many public speaking textbooks. For example, Peterson (1994) quoted one student as saying, "You'll see women's pictures all put in one chapter--'great women in history'--rather than throughout the book" (p. 2D).

In speech communication textbooks, hypothetical applications of communication skills perpetuate gender stereotypes, such as a woman delivering a speech to a PTA group while a man may be persuading a jury (Stewart, et al., 1996). Even in textbook discussions of relationships, women's perspectives may be devalued (Wood & Lenze, 1991). Research has determined that decision-making, reciprocity, and equity are more male concerns, while care, responding to needs, and interest in feelings are more salient to women's view of relationships; yet, most textbooks underrepresent the more typical female viewpoint (p. 16).

Analysis of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks

A total of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks were analyzed regarding their inclusion of gender-fair content (see Appendix G). The texts written between 1936 (e.g., D. Carnegie) to 1996, including the majority written between 1992 to present, demonstrate that gender is most often mentioned in reference to understanding audience demographics. A total of 10 texts included gender in the index, 3 texts maintained a multi-cultural perspective, 10 texts made references to gender differences in language usage, and 42 texts referred to men and women as part of audience analysis.

When texts included examples of speeches or were anthologies of public speeches, examples of female speeches were almost nonexistent. From the time of Aristotle until the late 1800s, societal factors did not allow women many opportunities to engage in public speaking behavior (Mulvaney, 1994). Over the years, rhetorical masterpieces have been speeches exclusively written and delivered by males, since males, and not females, were seen as a part of the white establishment paradigm (Thomas, 1991). As Lucaites (1989) states, "great speakers and speeches articulate the needs and desires of a particular audience by bringing cultural and universal values to bear effectively upon problems of the moment" (p. ix). With the exception of a few female speakers in the late 1800s, such as Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Angelina Grimke Weld, or Frances E. Willard, most women did not have the opportunity to speak in public and reflect upon the universal values of the time (Campbell, 1991). For example, Safire's 1992 compilation of great speeches in history includes 191 speeches delivered by men and nine by women. Other such anthologies (Copeland, 1973; Linkugel, Allen, & Johannesen, 1992; Lucaites, 1989; McArthur, 1992; Walters, 1995) repeat the trend of including far more male speeches.

Results from this analysis of public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicate that students of public speaking may be receiving gender-biased information, because the content of these texts appears to exclude women and other groups. Even when texts did include elements of gender research, an average of two pages were used to discuss gender issues. Students who use these texts in classrooms or those who read public speaking tradebooks in a more unstructured environment may be learning public speaking from an androcentric bias.

Research Question 4 Results

Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

The fourth research question stated: "what teaching methodologies have been identified in the literature which would address women's preferred styles of learning?" To determine the answers to the fourth research question, the following steps were taken: (a) extensive reviews of the literature were conducted; (b) a questionnaire was developed and distributed; and (c) interviews were conducted.

Inclusive Instructional Strategies

Researchers have designed methods to create inclusive classrooms (Adams, 1992; Cannon, 1990; Collett & Serrano, 1992; Davis, 1993; McKeachie, 1994; Sandler, 1991). Inclusive teaching methodology experts such as Butler and Walter (1991), Higginbotham (1990), and Jenkins (1993) believe that by implementing collaborative and cooperative learning opportunities, the college classroom can become an inclusive one. Sandler (1991), Schniedewind (1993), and Shrewsbury (1993) argue that feminist pedagogy is one type of inclusive teaching methodology which has received support in the college community and has been proven successful in creating an inclusive environment.

Evidence supports the belief that those teaching strategies that prove to be most effective for socially diverse populations are the same strategies which are characteristic of excellent teaching for a traditional student population (Green, 1989). The success of students correlates highly with the use of excellent teaching methodologies (Anderson & Adams, 1992). For example, excellent teachers have been found to perform the following actions: (a) assess their strengths and weaknesses, (b) exercise a student-centered approach, (c) possess a repertoire of alternative teaching strategies, (d) respect diverse views, (e) are well prepared and organized, (f) encourage independent and critical thinking, and (g) develop and use skills which motivate students and facilitate learning (Anderson & Adams, p. 31).

Goodwin and Stevens (1993) indicate that "good" teachers and teaching situations include such characteristics as enthusiasm, knowledge of subject-matter, clarity, organization, concern and caring for students, encouragement of active learning and student discussion, and feedback (p. 166).

Davis (1993) developed general strategies for developing an inclusive classroom based on educational research and analyses of teaching practices of faculty across the country. Davis proposes six strategies to improve classroom teaching:

1. Teachers should recognize biases or stereotypes.

2. Teachers should treat and respect each student as an individual.

3. Teachers should adjust their language so it is gender-neutral and includes diverse student populations.

4. Teachers should be sensitive to terms used to describe diverse populations.

5. Teachers should be aware of the cultural climate in the classroom. Wentzel (1991) argues that students should learn "socially responsible" behavior in order to create a classroom climate conducive to learning.

6. Teachers should discuss the issue of diversity at departmental meetings (Davis, pp. 40-42). Rather than developing comprehensive, college-wide curriculum-diversity workshops, as proposed by early feminist educators, two-hour workshops aimed at

faculty members from specific departments proved to be more successful (Goodstein, 1994).

Teachers who implement the following three inclusive strategies can create an environment where different cognitive styles are accepted (McKeachie, 1994): 1) teachers must be aware that different styles exist; 2) teachers should use varied instructional approaches, such as lecture, discussion, group work, and experiential learning; and 3) teachers should evaluate work from a variety of perspectives (pp. 233-234). Adams (1992) believes that two additional strategies promote learning: the use of journals in the classroom and the use of naturalistic rather than positivist modes of inquiry.

Collett and Serrano (1992) contend that an inclusive classroom can be achieved in a variety of ways. First, orientation programs and other campus-wide activities should begin to foster awareness of women's issues and other cultural values. Second, colleges should encourage the formation of informal and formal networks to support student interaction. Third, course planning should emphasize students' experiences and connect these experiences to course content. Fourth, new knowledge should be genuinely incorporated into the curriculum and not consist of mere add-ons to the traditional curriculum. Finally, teachers should implement teaching strategies which encourage inclusiveness and take into consideration all students' learning modes (pp. 42-45).

Cannon (1990) suggests that students and instructors follow nine ground rules to establish an inclusive classroom. First, students and faculty should acknowledge that sexism and other types of oppression exist in the classroom. Second, individuals must realize that students are misinformed about their own group. Third, students must learn not to blame themselves or others for the misinformation that has been learned. Fourth, the inclusive classroom environment should be one where victims are not blamed for the condition of their lives. Fifth, students must assume that the groups studied in class are doing the best they can in their situations. Sixth, students should actively pursue information about multi-culturalism. Seventh, students and faculty members should share this information and never demean or devalue other people's experiences. Eighth, stereotypes and myths of particular groups should be combated. Finally, instructors should provide a safe atmosphere conducive to open discussion (pp. 130-133).

Sandler (1991) believes the first step in producing an inclusive classroom climate is to survey faculty and students about these issues and make the results a matter of public discussion (p. 12). Other suggestions include the following: (a) faculty members incorporating humor in the classroom to deflect possible problems, (b) female faculty members not being modest about their accomplishments, and (c) faculty members being aware of their speaking style in the classroom.

Feminist Pedagogy. Wood (1989) believes there are six reasons why feminist pedagogy is one of the most effective inclusive teaching methodologies. Shrewsbury (1993) and Schniedewind (1987) each present strategies for implementing feminist pedagogy in the college classroom. The "connected teaching" philosophy (Belenky, et al., 1986) and cooperative learning principles(Austin & Baldwin, 1991; Lay, 1989) are other examples of inclusive teaching methodologies which parallel feminist pedagogy principles. Although researchers in feminist pedagogy tend to be women (Dunn, 1993; Schniedewind, 1993; Shrewsbury, 1993), feminist pedagogy can be implemented by both male and female faculty members. Regardless of who is implementing the methodology, researchers such as Klein and Treichler (cited in Peterson, 1991) describe feminist pedagogy as emphasizing collaborative and cooperative environments, shared leadership, mutual respect, academic and personal development, and action and change (p. 65). In these classrooms, women students take more active roles and participate in relative equity with their male peers (Wood, 1994). Peterson (1991) states that the instructional strategies inherent in feminist pedagogy also improve teaching, even if the instructor is not a feminist or interested in feminism (p. 65).

Feminist pedagogy is a "new field [that] evolved from many different sources: the consciousness-raising practices derived from the women's movement . . . and the more general forms of 'liberatory teaching' espoused by Paulo Priere . . ." (Mahr & Tetreault, 1994, pp. 9-10). Makau (1993) asserts that the first step towards developing an inclusive classroom involves creating a cooperative learning environment that is safe and non-competitive (p. 82). The classrooms of feminist educators tend to be ones of cooperation and collaboration (Beckman, 1991). Feminist pedagogy requires the educator to view the classroom as a community of learners (Shrewsbury, 1993). Mahr and Tetreault (1994) believe that feminist pedagogy consists of four critical themes: mastery, voice, authority, and positionality.

Belenky, et al. (1986), the pioneers of researching women's ways of knowing, label the technique which includes women's styles of learning "connected teaching." The facilitating model of "midwife teacher" opposes the direct-deposit "banker teacher" model (Adams, 1992). Belenky, et al. posit five attributes of connected teaching:

1. Course materials should be related to students' personal experiences.

2. Classroom communication should consist of dialogues instead of teacher-driven monologues.

3. Classroom experience should include critical thinking.

4. Class participants should feel confirmed and accepted.

5. Classroom norm is activity rather than passivity (p. 219-222).

"A connected teacher is not just another student; the role carries special responsibilities. It does not entail power over the students; however, it does carry authority, an authority based not on subordination but on cooperation" (Belenky, et al., 1986, p. 227).

Shrewsbury (1993) believes there are six teaching strategies inherent within feminist pedagogy. First, feminist pedagogy enhances students' ability to develop individual and collective goals for the course. Second, students are empowered to show their independence as learners. Third, students are reminded of their responsibility to make the class a learning environment. Fourth, students learn skills such as planning, negotiating, evaluating, and decision-making. Fifth, the self-esteem of the students is enhanced, and students are reminded they can become agents of change within and outside the classroom environment. Finally, students are able to increase their knowledge of the subject-matter and develop their own learning goals (pp. 10-11).

Schniedewind (1993) argues that inherent within feminist pedagogy is the component of feminist-process skills. Both educators and students need to understand feminist process-skills in order to contribute in the classroom. The feminist process consists of five principles: (a) communicating, (b) developing a democratic process, (c) cooperating, (d) integrating theory and practice, and (e) networking and organizing (p. 17). Initially, educators would be responsible for teaching their students how to share feelings and give feedback in the classroom. The group-process skills of shared leadership would be advocated in this type of classroom. Cooperatively structured learning activities would be a teaching strategy to help students learn the process of cooperation. In addition, activities would have to be developed by educators to aid students in integrating theory with practice. Finally, students would learn strategies which would help them survive in society (pp. 19-26).

Schniedewind (1987) in an earlier article defines five goals within feminist pedagogy. First, faculty members must develop an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust, and community in the classroom. Second, the concept of shared leadership should be explained to the students. Schniedewind states that "I don't have a totally egalitarian classroom. I do take more leadership and have more power than any of the students" (p. 173). Third, the feminist classroom is based on cooperative norms reflecting educational points of view. Fourth, feminist educators should integrate cognitive and affective learning principles. Journal writing, experimental and participatory activities, and personal connections to assignments are all examples of incorporating women's ways of knowing in the classroom (p. 174). Finally, this egalitarian classroom would try to transform the institution's values and promote action within the community (Schniedewind, 1987).

The feminist approach assumes that (a) a variety of teaching strategies are used, (b) individual learning styles are emphasized, (c) collaborative learning techniques are used, and (d) student-student interaction increases (Stewart, et al., 1996). Wood (cited in Stewart, et al., 1996) believes that the feminine perspective on teaching and learning is effective because feminist pedagogy includes the following:

1. It is an inclusive curriculum.
2. It values diversity, so that various ways of knowing are accepted.
3. It values human relationships, so teaching is interactive rather than authoritative.
4. It values personal experience and its relationship to learning new concepts and ideas.
5. It emphasizes the concept of empowerment.
6. It seeks to create change and to help students realize they are agents of change (p. 168).

Feminist pedagogy relates to the instructional method of collaborative learning (Lay, 1989). Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1990) reviewed the results of 137 studies on college-level cooperative-learning methods. They concluded that research supports the use of cooperative-learning methods for developing committed and positive relationships among students, increasing social support, enhancing self-esteem, and increasing productivity. Evidence supports the theory that women's approach to collaboration differs from that of men (Austin & Baldwin, 1991). The American Association for Higher Education's Action Community on Collaborative Learning defines cooperation in higher education as follows:

> Collaboration in undergraduate education is a pedagogical style that emphasizes cooperative efforts among students, faculty, and administrators. Rooted in the belief that learning is inherently social in nature, it stresses common inquiry as the basic learning process. (cited in Austin & Baldwin, p. 14)

Women students seek a collaborative experience in the classroom setting, whereas male students are comfortable in classes which consist of debate and competitiveness (Lay, 1989). While evidence exists to support this belief, researchers should avoid dualistic thinking, such as women are natural collaborators while men are natural competitors (p. 25). Collaborative learning involves three primary components. First, group members share a positive interdependence among each other. Second, collaborative learning encourages students to learn the skills associated with cooperation, such as listening, offering criticism, and sharing information. Third, cooperative learning creates a sense of community (Austin & Baldwin, 1991).

Lay (1989) outlines seven components necessary to establish a collaborative learning environment. First, faculty members should prepare the class for self-disclosure through the use of communication games and activities. Second, gender studies indicate that men bid for control; therefore, control must be maintained by the instructor in order for collaboration to occur (p. 16). Third, trust must be present as a prerequisite for self-disclosure. Fourth, faculty must engage in questioning students regarding their perceptions of group dynamics and gender roles. Polling students will give the faculty member information on how to deal with the complex issues of power, leadership, and group roles (p. 20). Fifth, male collaborators may view all conflict as substantive, while female collaborators may view conflict as interpersonal. Members of a collaborative team must understand these differing views of conflict. Instructors can take students through a series of conflict-management activities to help students arrive at a consensus on the characteristics of conflict (p. 20). Sixth, the group must reach agreement. The only way to achieve congruence, that is, a matching of experience, is in a threat-free environment. Finally, rewards should be given to students working on collaborative projects (pp. 14-24).

Cooperative learning is generally defined as one in which "there is positive interdependence among a group of students in the learning process, and each student is both individually accountable for his/her own learning and responsible for other group members' learning as well" (Sapon-Shevin & Schniedewind, 1992, p. 12). Austin and Baldwin (1991) believe that cooperative learning benefits students through enhanced self-esteem and greater respect among students. Nadler and Nadler (1991) also suggest that in a supportive communication climate, "students feel more comfortable participating in class, disagreeing with instructors, and meeting with faculty outside of class" (p. 61). In summary, cooperative classrooms create caring communities in which students view themselves as having specific responsibilities to one another regardless of gender (Sapon-Shevin & Schniedewind, 1992).

There are two advantages to cooperative learning. First, it promotes high levels of achievement, especially in students who have not traditionally done well in school. Second, it promotes positive interpersonal social behavior (Sapon-Shevin & Schniedwind, 1992). Nussbaum (1992) reports that students learn more when they have teachers who use nonverbal responsive behaviors such as relaxed body posture, eye contact, smiling, and vocal expressiveness (p. 175).

Although researchers and practitioners such as Austin and Baldwin (1991), Davis (1993), Schniedewind (1987, 1993), and Shrewsbury (1993) have suggested some teaching strategies to produce a more inclusive classroom, Shrewsbury explains that feminist pedagogy does not assume that all classrooms are alike. Feminist pedagogy does not automatically preclude any technique or approach (p. 14).

Garlick (1994) states that students may misread an instructor's use of feminist pedagogy as a form of harassment. Faculty who implement this instructional methodology may use a variety of immediacy behaviors such as maintaining close physical distance, gesturing, spending time with students, and being vocally expressive (p. 137). Previous research cited in Garlick (Burgoon, Newton, Walther, & Baesler, 1989) found that high degrees of gaze, close conversational distance, and high conversational involvement are positive behaviors in the classroom. Although these behaviors have been positively correlated with student learning, Garlick's study determined that women saw these behaviors as less appropriate and were less comfortable around them than male students (p. 152).

Several studies (Basow & Silberg, 1987; Kierstead, D'Agostin, & Dill, 1988) suggest that students may rate their female professors more harshly than their male professors (cited in Sandler, 1991). Women who presented themselves in traditional feminine ways were rated less competent than women who did not (Hall, Braunwald, & Mroz, 1982). Even with conflicting evidence and possible problems with the implementation of feminist pedagogy, Crosby, Allen, Culbertson, Wally, Morith, Hall and Nunes (1994) believe that the best education for young men and women is a feminist one. Feminist education is "one that recognizes gender as a legitimate category of analysis, that acknowledges the historical burden of sexism, and that works to validate the experiences of women as well as men" (p. 116).

Questionnaire

Information regarding actual public speaking instruction, preferred public speaking instruction, and perceived gender differences in public speaking behavior was gathered through the use of a questionnaire. Respondents to the questionnaire included male and female Communications, Theatre, and Foreign Language faculty members at SLCC-Meramec; Management and Communications faculty members at CUW-St. Louis Center; members of the National Speakers Association; and, experienced and non-experienced public speakers. A total of 152 questionnaires were distributed to the target population. The convenience sample consisted of 139 returned questionnaires, indicating a 91.4% return rate. Of those who completed the optional question concerning the gender of the respondent, results indicated that 60.6% of the respondents were female and 39.4% of the respondents were male.

The questionnaire consisted of 28 closed-ended questions and two open-ended questions organized into three sections. Respondents were provided space with which to leave additional comments. The first section consisted of questions pertaining to the respondents' actual public speaking instruction. The second section consisted of questions regarding the respondents' preferred public speaking instruction. The third section consisted of questions pertaining to public speaking behavior and gender communication. Results from the questionnaire were tabulated in percent form; however, since data was requested in a ranking format for question 3-3, average scores were tabulated. Responses to two open-ended questions, "other" reponses, and additional comments were recorded in descriptive form (see Appendix P).

Questionnaire Results

Conclusions reached from the survey are as follows: (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning (i.e., cooperative, inclusive) nor does it include issues related to women or multi-culturalism, (b) men and women should not receive instruction in public speaking targeted to a specific gender, (c) men and women believe the public speaking course could be more accepting of women and women's preferred styles of learning, (d) men and women agree that gender differences exist in public speaking behavior, (e) men and women are evaluated differently by peers, (f) men and women are not evaluated differently by instructors, (g) men and women do not evaluate themselves differently, (h) societal stereotypes are the primary reason for gender differences in public speaking behavior, (i) the method of instruction and the gender of the instructor can affect the degree of gender differences in the classroom, and (j) speakers and educators should be responsible for dealing with gender differences in public speaking behavior.

The questionnaire yielded information regarding public speaking behavior and gender communication. Respondents were asked to report the gender of their public speaking instructor. Because questions in the first section of the questionnaire were concerned with actual public speaking instruction, the gender of the instructor was a relevant question. Respondents reported 56.7% as having a female instructor and 30.7% as having a male instructor. A total of 12.6% did not remember the gender of their instructor (see Figure 1).

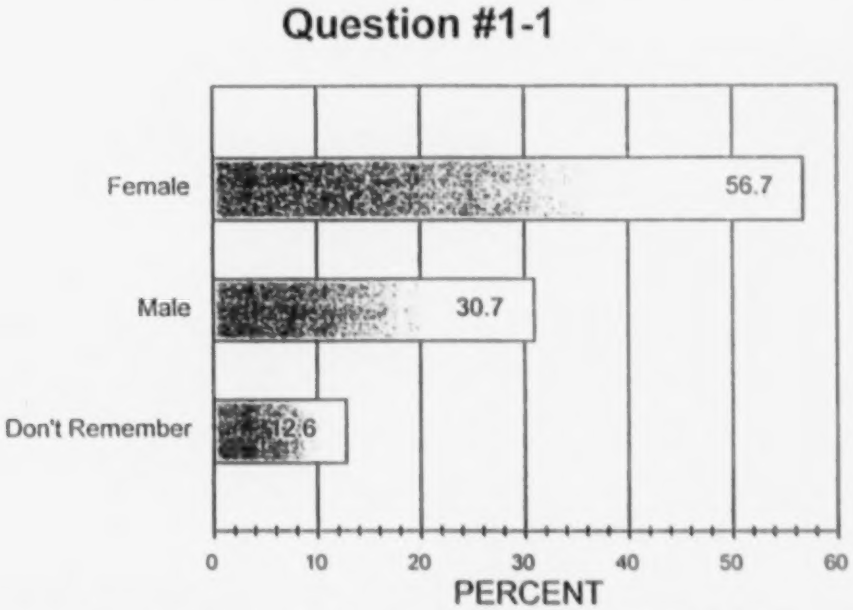

Figure 1. Question 1-1: What was the gender of your public speaking instructor?

Five initial questions pertained to the respondents' actual public speaking instruction. Question 1-2 asked respondents to provide the number of male and female public speaking examples used by the instructor in their public speaking course. The respondents reported that examples consisted of 65.5% male and 33.7% female (see Figure 2).

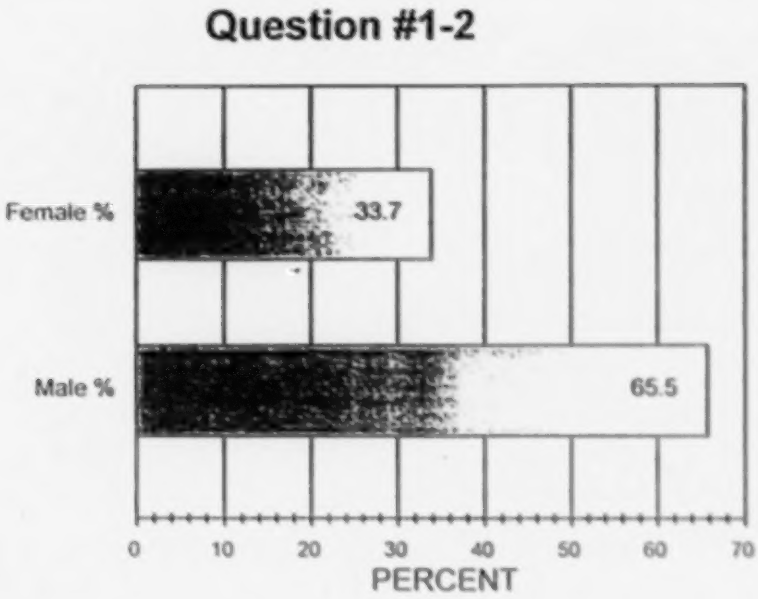

Figure 2. Question 1-2. If sample speeches in your public speaking textbook were used or provided in class on video, what percentage were performed by males and females? (Total 100%)

Respondents were asked if women's preferred learning styles were a part of the public speaking classroom (question 1-3). Question 1-3 yielded 52.8% no responses and 47.2% yes responses (see Figure 3).

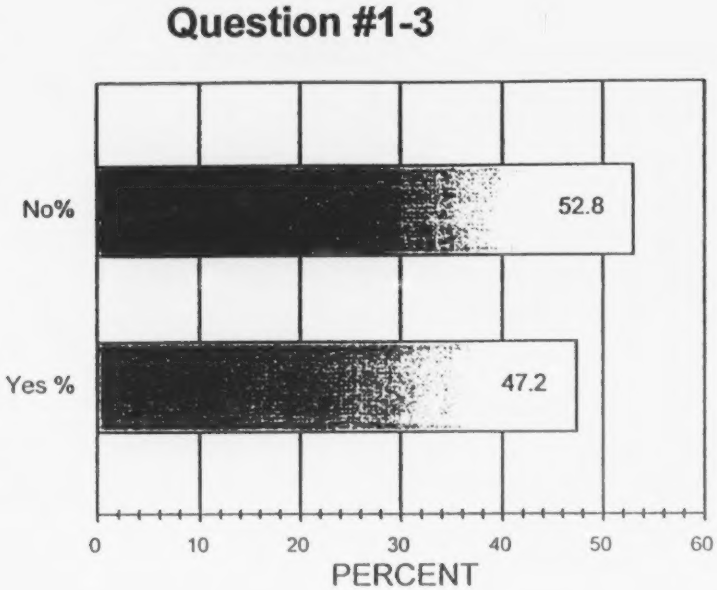

Figure 3. Question 1-3: Were women's preferred learning styles (for example, cooperative learning, hands-on activities, and interaction) a part of your public speaking classroom?

When asked to what extent cooperative learning was incorporated into the public speaking course (question 1-4), 32.8% responded seldom or never, while 56% believed often to occasionally. Only 11.2% believed cooperative learning was used in their public speaking classroom very often (see Figure 4).

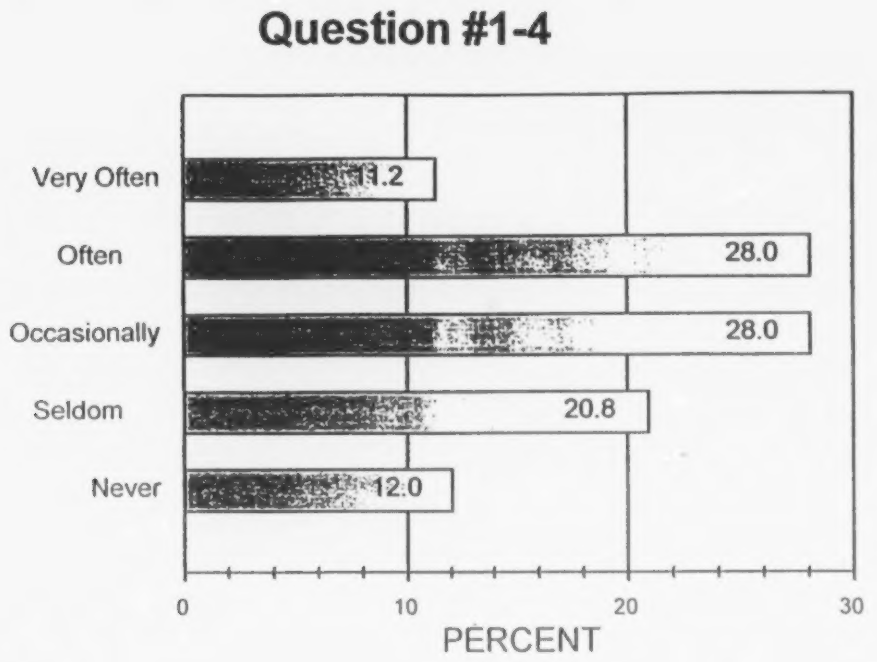

Figure 4. Question 1-4: To what extent was cooperative learning, such as group work, team presentations, and class discussion, incorporated as a teaching technique in your public speaking course?

Survey respondents were asked to what extent women's and multicultural issues pervaded the public speaking classroom (question 1-5). A total of 67.2% believed that women's issues seldom or never entered the public speaking classroom. Another 27.2% believed that occasionally women's issues were mentioned. The remaining 5.6% thought that women's issues were discussed very often (see Figure 5).

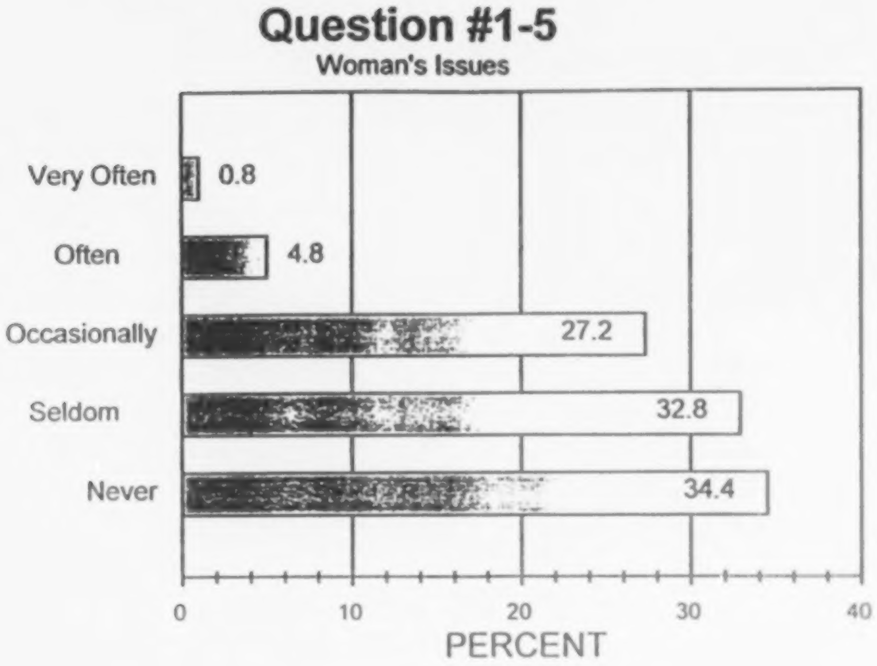

Figure 5. Question 1-5: To what extent, if any, was the content of the public speaking course related to women's issues?

Regarding multi-cultural issues, 63.5% of the respondents chose seldom or never, and 26.2 chose occasionally. The remaining 10.3% indicated often (see Figure 6).

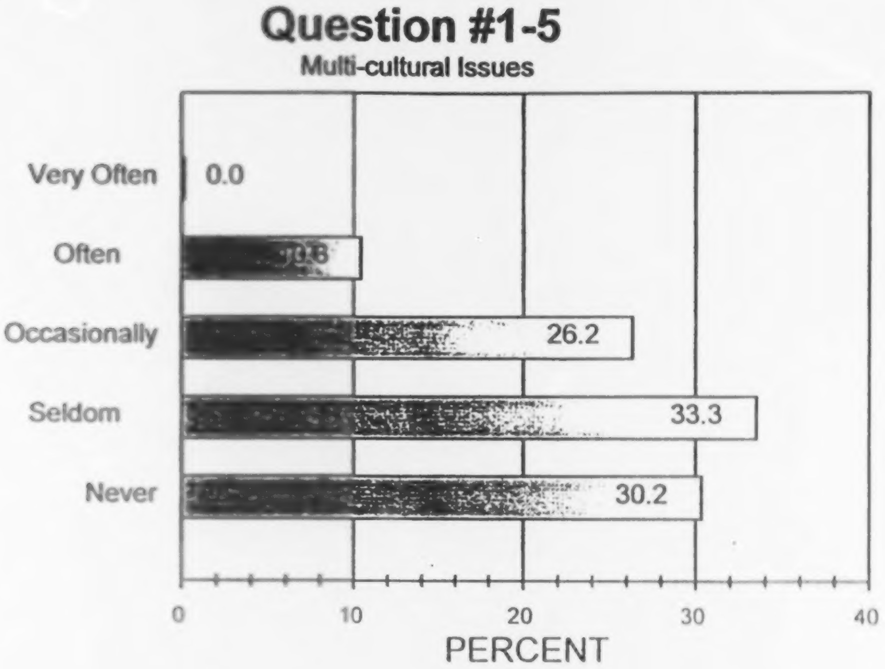

Figure 6. Question 1-5: To what extent, if any, was the content of the public speaking course related to multi-cultural issues?

Three questions targeted specific instructional strategies such as speech contests (question 1-6), group work (question 1-7), and group presentations (question 1-8). Results indicated that 57.5% of the respondents did not participate in speech contests, while 42.5% indicated participation in competitive speech activities (see Figure 7).

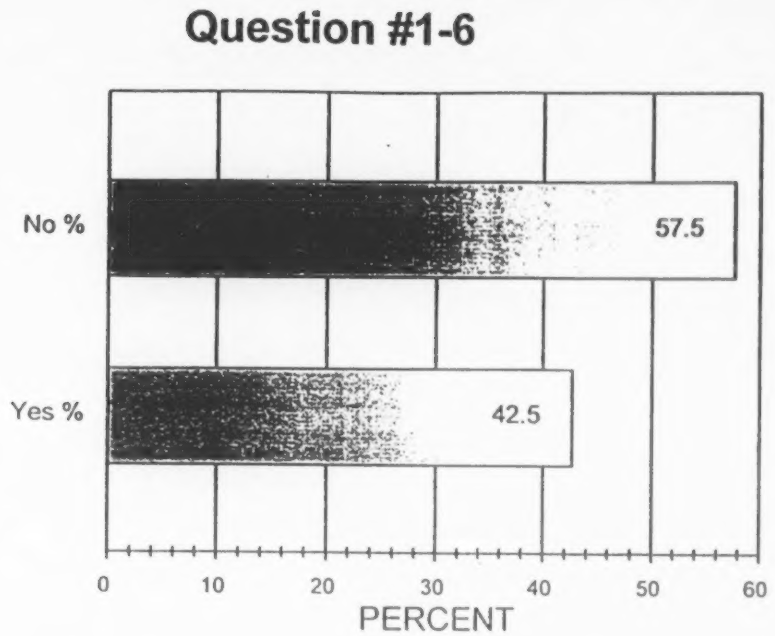

Figure 7. Question 1-6: Did speech contests or other competitive speech activities occur in your public speaking classroom?

A total of 57.6% were not allowed to work in groups to prepare speeches, whereas 42.4% had the opportunity to prepare speeches in a group format (see Figure 8).

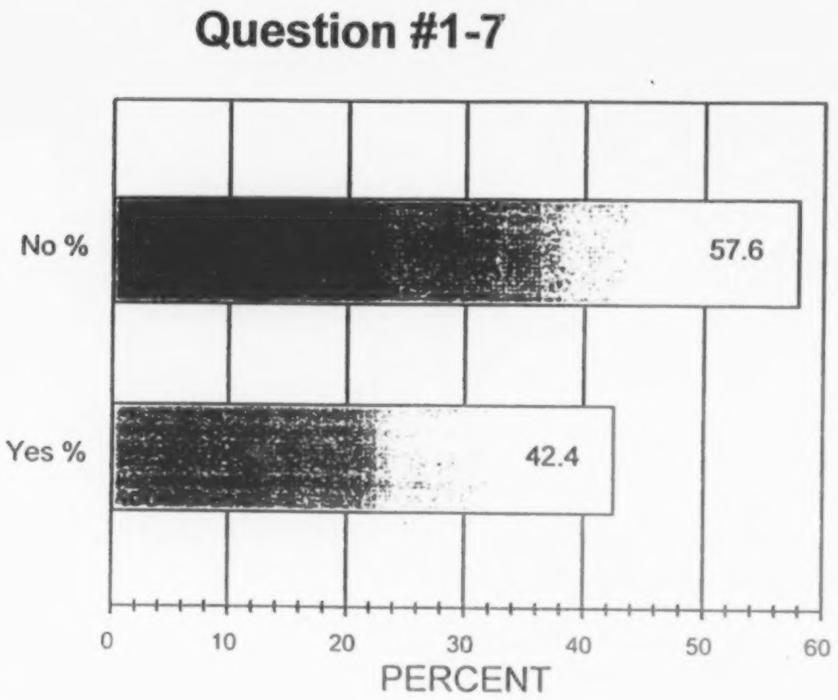

Figure 8. Question 1-7: Were you allowed to work in groups in order to prepare speeches?

Question 1-8 yielded very close results with 50.4% of the respondents indicating they delivered group presentations, and 49.6% indicating they did not have the opportunity to deliver group presentations (see Figure 9).

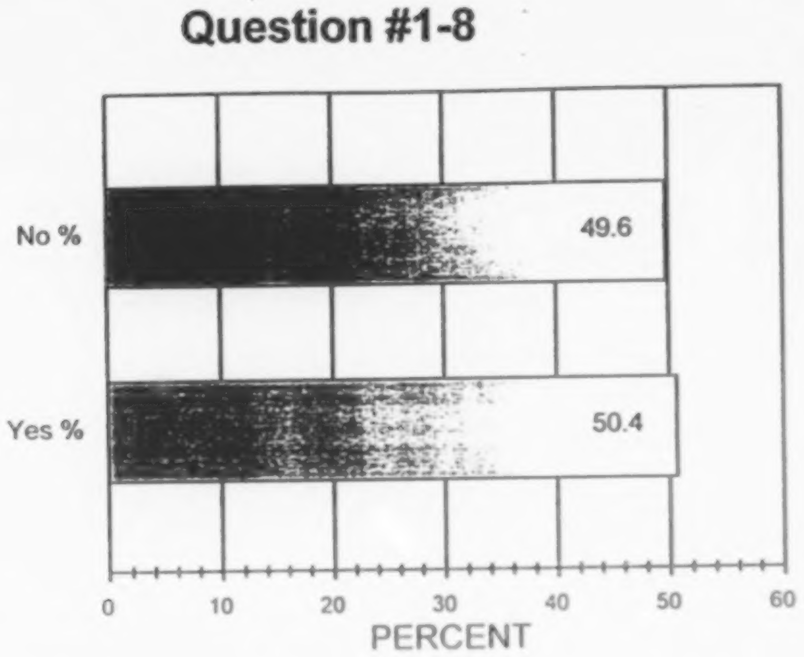

Figure 9. Question 1-8: Did you deliver any group presentations or other collaborative presentations?

Questions 1-9 and 1-10 asked respondents to indicate the amount of satisfaction with their public speaking instruction. A total of 60.5% believed that their public speaking instruction somewhat prepared them for their current public speaking experiences. Those indicating very much totaled 28.2 percent, and those indicating that their public speaking instruction did not prepare them for their current public speaking experiences totaled 11.3% (see Figure 10).

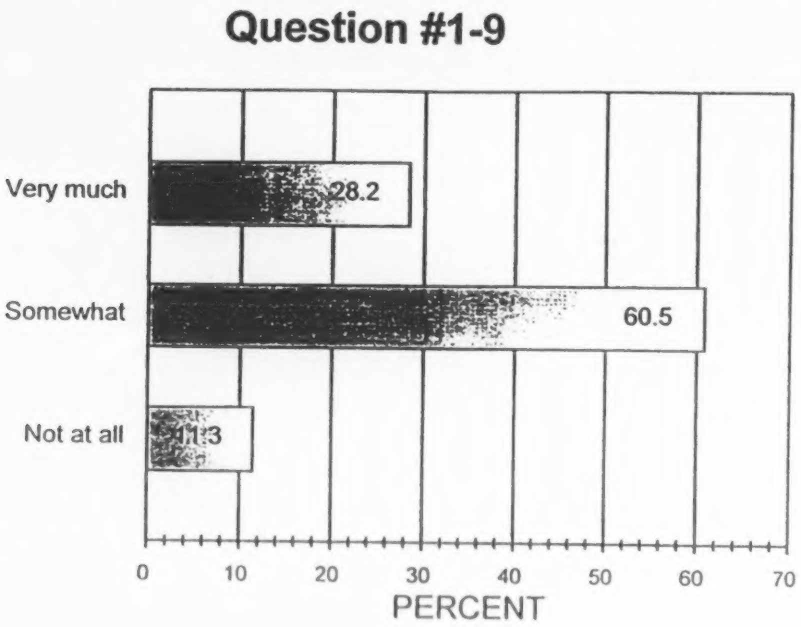

Figure 10. Question 1-9: How adequately has your public speaking instruction prepared you for your current public speaking experiences?

Concerning public speaking instruction, 64.8% believed that the instruction was adequate, 19.2% superior, and 16% disappointing (see Figure 11).

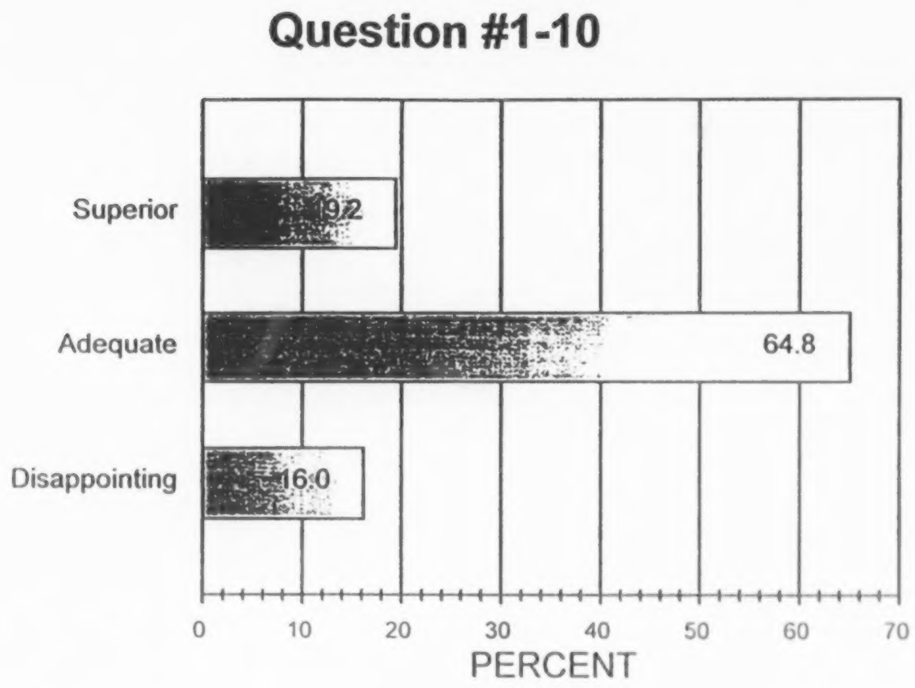

Figure 11. Question 1-10: How would you rate your public speaking instruction?

The second section of the questionnaire determined the respondents' preferred public speaking instruction. A total of 81.9% did not have a preference as to the gender of the instructor, while 12.3% preferred a female instructor, and 5.8% preferred a male instructor (question 2-1) (see Figure 12).

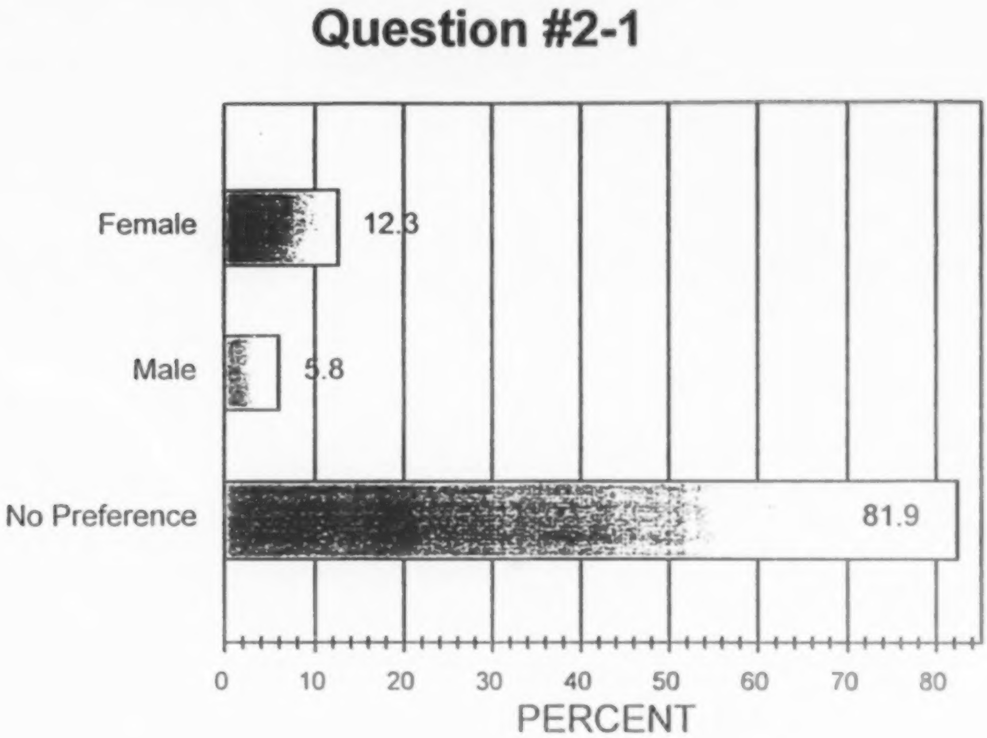

Figure 12. Question 2-1: Do you have a preference as to the gender of the instructor?

86.3% did not believe men and women should receive separate public speaking instruction, while 13.7% felt that public speaking instruction should be targeted toward a specific gender (question 2-2) (see Figure 13).

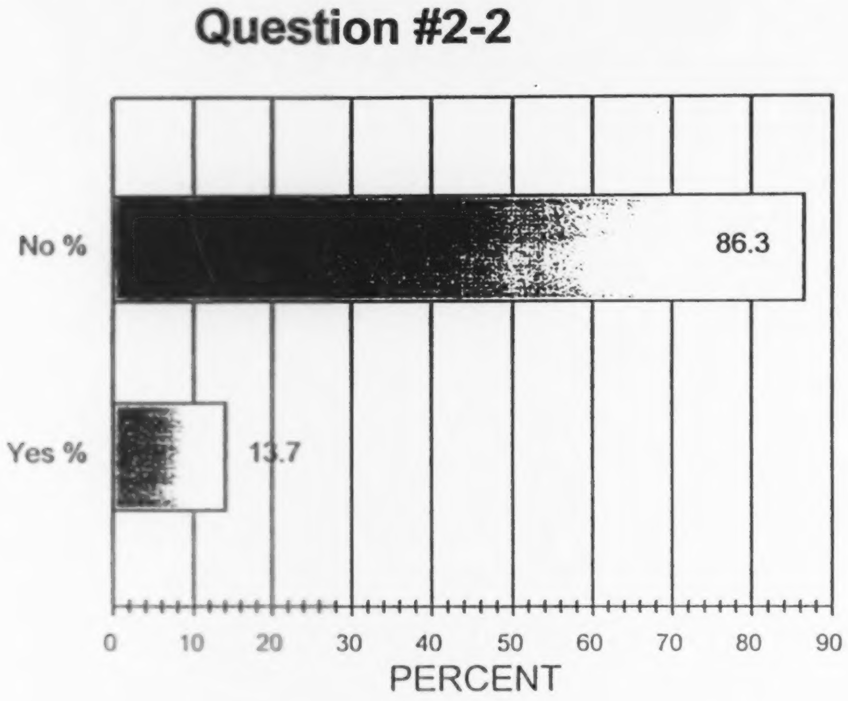

Figure 13. Question 2-2: Do you believe men and women should receive public speaking instruction targeted toward a specific gender? (i.e., should men and women receive separate public speaking instruction?)

Respondents who indicated that they would prefer collaborative group work in the public speaking course totaled 72.5%, while 27.5% did not prefer collaborative group work (question 2-3) (see Figure 14).

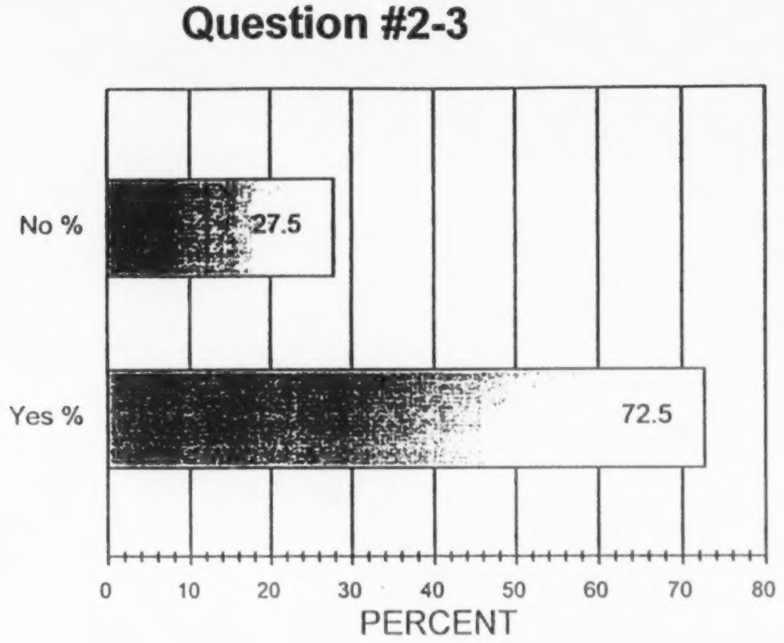

Figure 14. Question 2-3: Would you prefer collaborative group work in a public speaking course?

The questionnaire provided the respondents with eight options to determine how the public speaking course could be more accepting of women's topics, preferred learning styles, and preferred speaking styles. Respondents reported the following in descending order: (a) more examples of female speakers (22.5%), (b) different speech assignments (20.8%), (c) collaborative learning opportunities (18.4%), (d) more female instructors (12.7%), (e) textbook selection (9.6%), (f) competitive speech exercises (8.3%), (g) different evaluation procedures (5.1%), and (h) separate classes (2.5%) (see Figure 15).

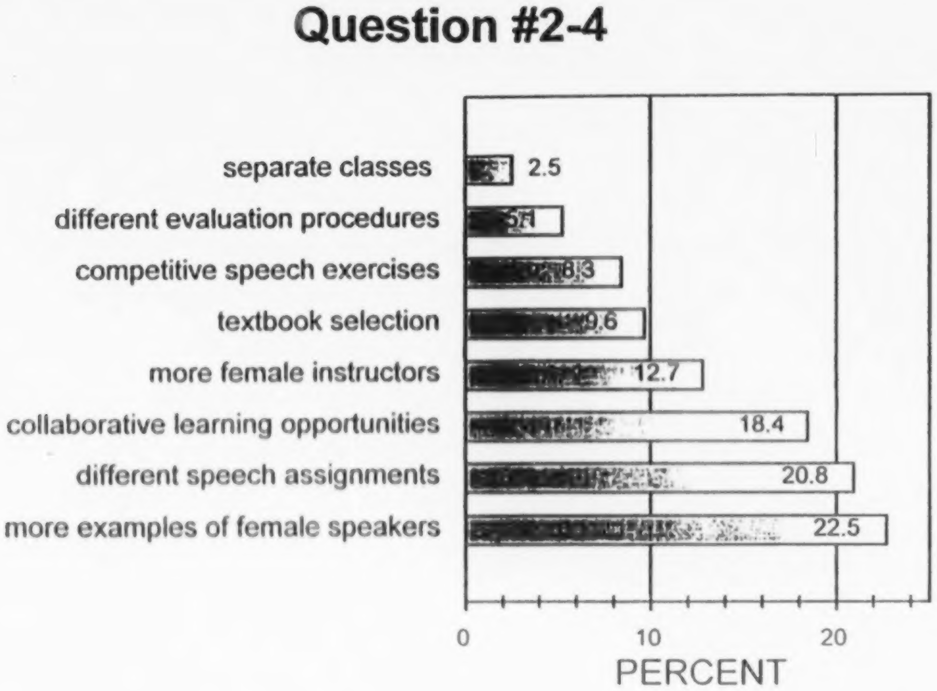

Figure 15. Question 2-4: How could the public speaking course be more accepting of women's topics, preferred learning styles and preferred speaking styles? (Check all that apply)

Respondents were provided with 11 items to determine which items should be included in the preferred public speaking classroom. Respondents reported the following in descending order: (a) videotaping of speeches (13.1%), (b) group presentations (11.5%), (c) peer evaluations (11.4%), (d) impromptu speaking assignments (11.1%), (e) class activities (11.1%), (f) formal presentations (10.8%), (g) self-evaluations (10.3%), (h) instructor lectures (8.2%), (i) speech contests (5%), (j) female instructor (4%), and (k) male instructor (3.5%) (see Figure 16).

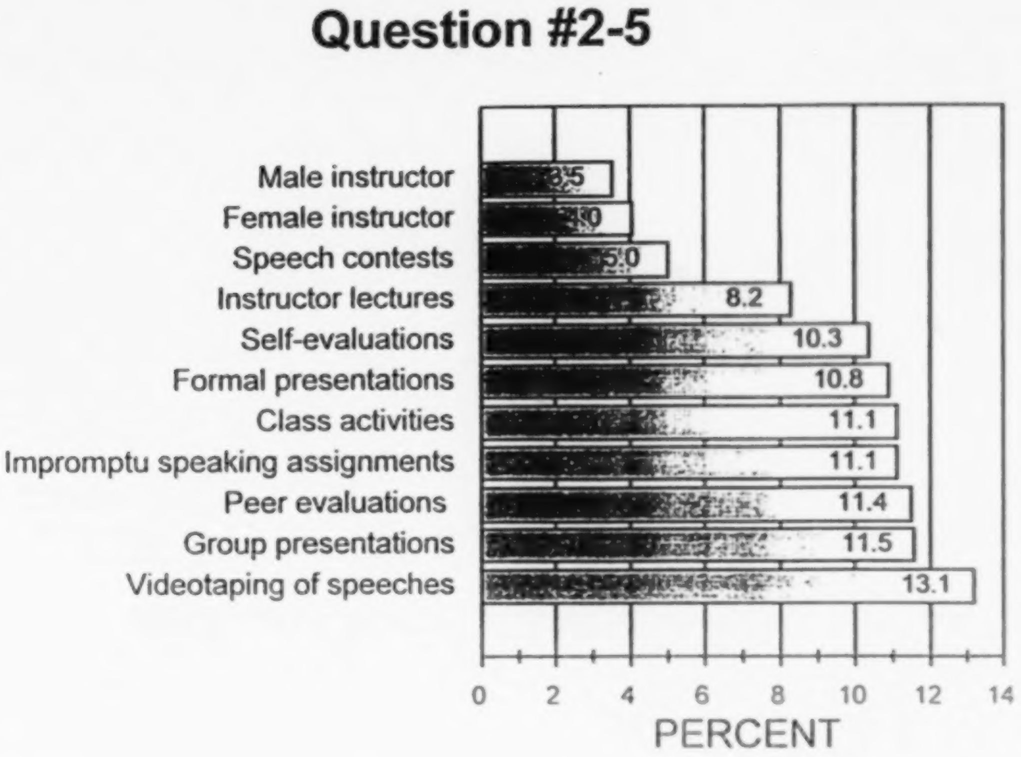

Figure 16. Question 2-5: What following items would be included in the preferred public speaking classroom? (Select all that apply).

The third section of the questionnaire determined public speaking behavior and perceived gender differences. A total of 78.4% reported that they believe gender differences exist in public speaking behavior and 21.6% did not (question 3-1) (see Figure 17).

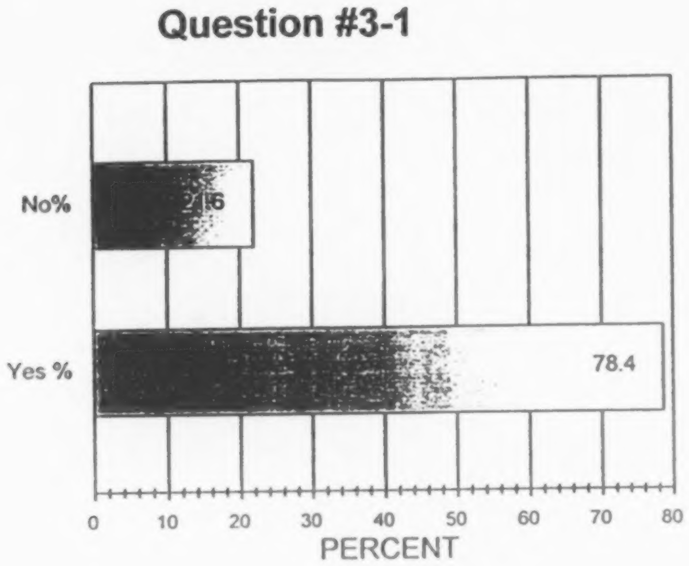

Figure 17. Question 3-1: Do you believe there are gender differences in public speaking behavior?

Two questions were designed to elicit information about areas where gender differences exist. Respondents who believed gender differences existed were given 13 categories of possible gender differences determined through a review of literature. Respondents indicated gender differences in each of the 13 categories. The following is a list of perceived gender differences in order of the most prevalent to the least prevalent: (a) body movement (11.3%), (b) gestures (11.2%), (c) language usage (10.8%), (d) voice (9.5%), (e) facial expressions (8.3%), (f) eye contact (8.0%), (g) credibility (7.9%), (h) listening (7.6%), (i) use of expletives and profanity (6.9%), (j) speech organization (6.0%), (k) persuasiveness (5.6%), (l) communication apprehension (3.7%), and (m) self-evaluation (3.2%) (see Figure 18).

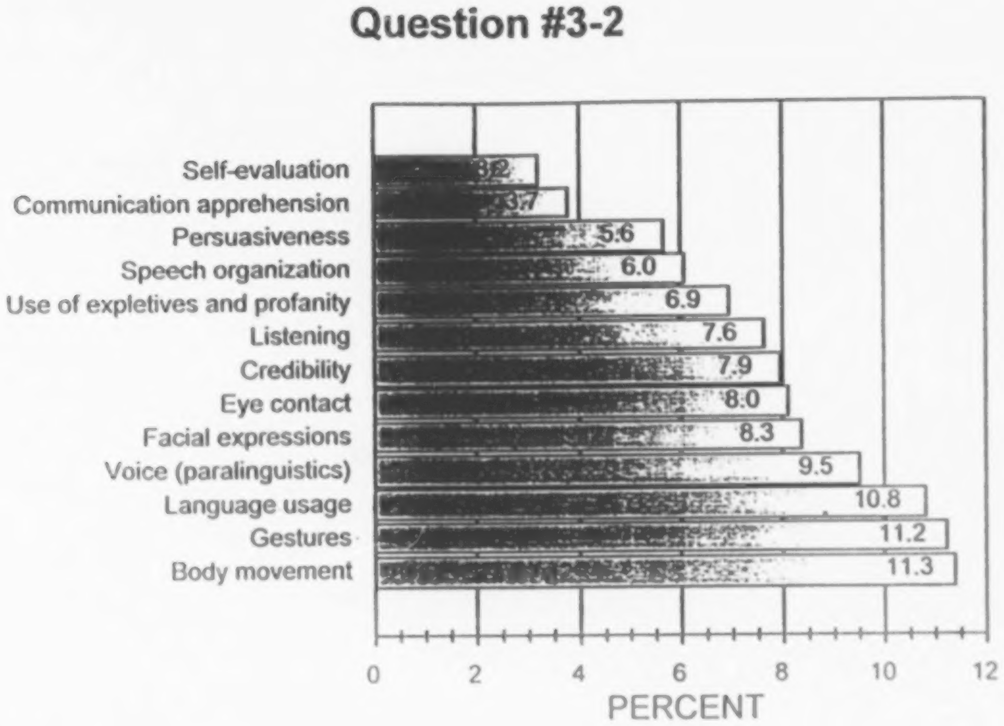

Figure 18. Question 3-2: If yes, please mark the areas where you believe gender differences exist. Select all that apply.

Question 3-3 required respondents to rank each gender difference category as to the strength of the gender difference (e.g., 10 = most and 1 = least). Respondents reported these gender differences in descending order: (a) gestures (5.23), (b) body movement (4.78), (c) voice (4.70), (d) perceived credibility (4.48), (e) language usage (4.19), (f) use of expletives and profanity (4.05), (g) facial expressions (3.92), (h) eye contact (3.66), (i) persuasiveness (3.63), (j) listening (3.51), (k) communication apprehension (2.61), (l) self-evaluation (2.48), and (m) speech organization (2.19) (see Figure 19).

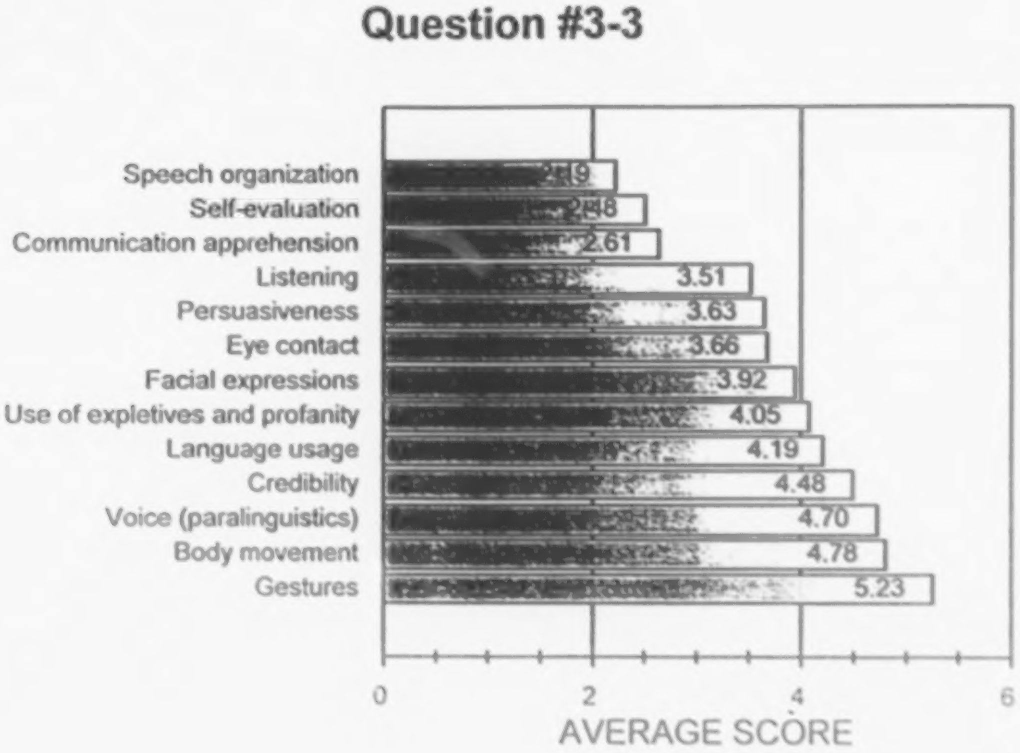

Figure 19. Question 3-3: Please rank on a 1-10 scale those items in the previous question, from most to least amount of gender difference. Please place a 0 in front of the item(s) where you believe no gender difference(s) exists. (10=most difference, 1=least difference)

Three questions were concerned with determining if gender differences occur in the evaluation of speeches by a peer group (question 3-4), by instructors (3-4) and by themselves (3-6). Question 3-5 allowed respondents to describe the differences in evaluation. A total of 62% reported that they believed male and female speakers are evaluated differently by peers, and 38% did not (question 3-4) (see Figure 20).

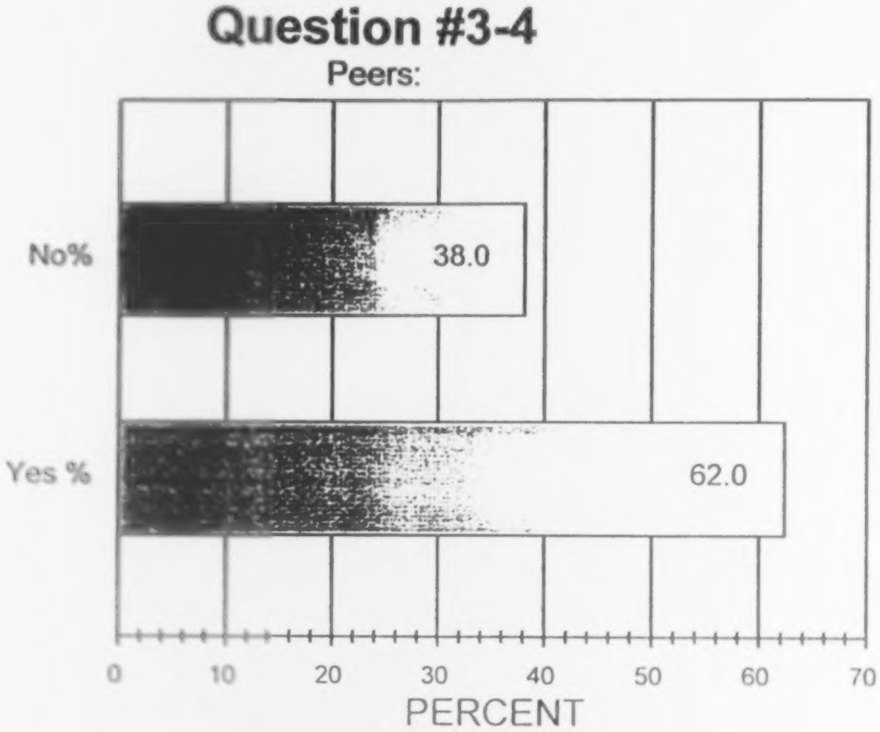

Figure 20. Question 3-4: Do you believe there are differences in how male and female speakers are evaluated regarding the following? Peers:

52.6% of the respondents indicated that instructors did not evaluate male and female speakers differently, yet 47.4% did believe that instructors evaluated male and female speakers differently (question 3-4) (see Figure 21).

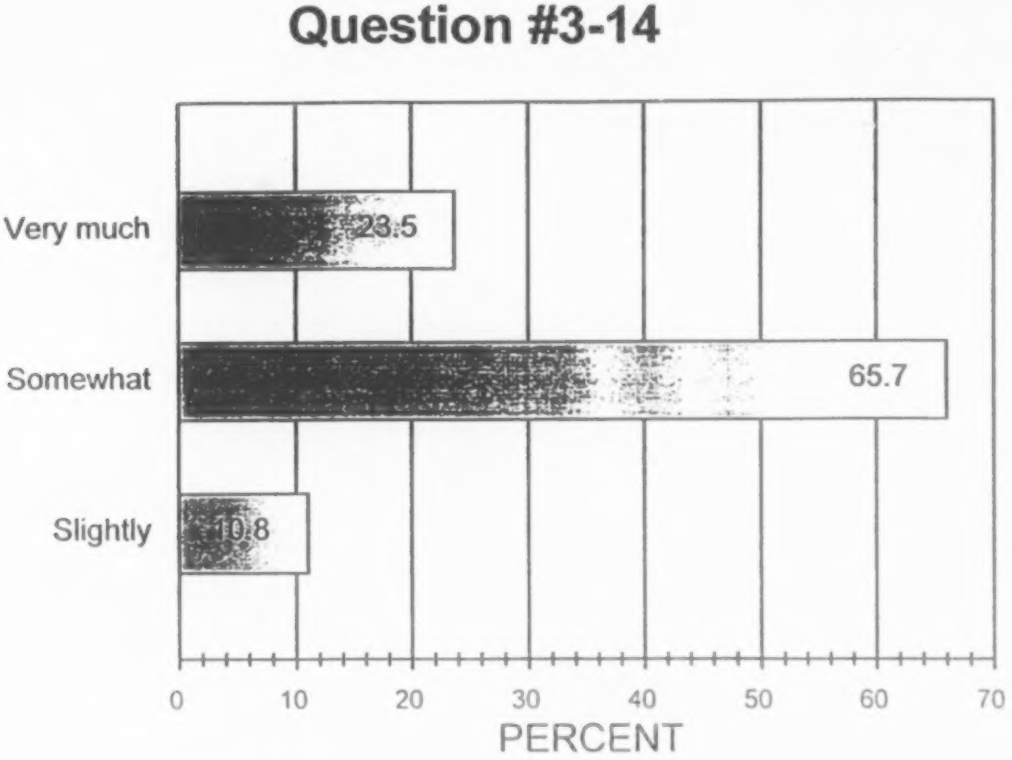

Figure 29. Question 3-14: If yes, how much?

Question 3-15 was designed to determine who should accept responsiblity for gender differences in public speaking. The respondents reported the following: (a) speakers themselves (30.1%), (b) educators (22.5%), (c) educational institutions (17%), (d) society (15.2%), (e) employers (10.6%), (f) other (3%), and (g) no one (1.5%) (see Figure 30). The respondents who indicated "other" believed the audience, speakers, and organizers of public speaking events should have the responsibility (see Appendix P).

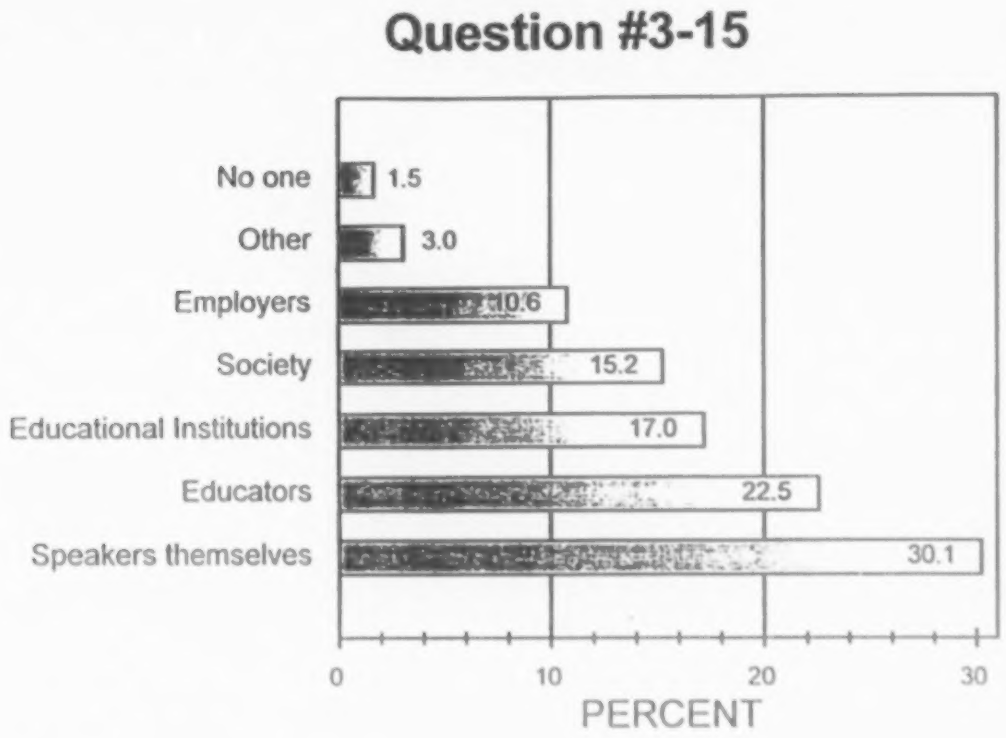

Figure 30. Question 3-15: Whose responsibility is it to deal with gender differences in public speaking behavior?

Interview

In-depth interviews were conducted to solicit additional information about male and female speaking styles, preference for public speaking instruction, and gender differences affecting public speaking styles. Eight male and seven female non-experienced and experienced public speakers were interviewed. A series of closed, open, and follow-up questions were included in each of the three sections of the interview. Interview responses were coded according to the gender of the interview subject, and results were tabulated and analyzed (see Appendix Q).

Interview Results

Conclusions reached from the interviews are as follows: (a) a majority of men and women would like to change their public speaking style, (b) a majority of men and women report that their public speaking style reflects their gender, (c) men and women believe socially desired public speaking styles exist, (d) men and women agree on descriptions of the ideal public speaking classroom and the ideal public speaking instructor, (e) men and women indicate that an unequal representation of male and female speech examples exist, (f) a majority of men and women agree that men and women possess different public speaking styles, and (g) a majority of men and women believe that society does not accept both male and female speakers equally.

The first section of the interview consisted of five questions concerned with determining the public speaking styles of men and women. In response to question one, "How would you describe your public speaking style?", men described their public speaking styles as direct, informative, forceful, aggressive, organized, and entertaining. Women described their public speaking styles as informal, casual, informative, open, enthusiastic, and relaxed.

Question 1-2 asked "How do you believe you acquired your public speaking style?" (a) public speaking instruction, (b) modeling behavior, or (c) naturally? A majority of the males believed they acquired their public speaking skills naturally, with a portion believing that modeling behavior affected their style. A majority of the women believed they acquired their public speaking style by modeling or a combination of instruction, modeling, and naturally. Question 1-3, "Would you like to change your public speaking style?"

indicated that a majority of both males and females would like to change their public speaking style (5 males & 5 females). A follow-up question revealed that males and females agreed that instruction and more practice would help improve public speaking skills. Two males and one female did not indicate an inclination towards improvement.

Question 1-4, "Do you believe your public speaking style reflects your gender in any way?" indicated that a majority of the interview subjects believed their public speaking style reflected their gender (6 male & 5 female). In response to question 1-5, "Do you believe there is/are socially desired public speaking styles?", seven males and five females reported that socially desired public speaking styles exist. When asked to describe the styles, men responded with identifiers such as knowledgeable, organized, entertaining, and captivating. Women responded with characteristics such as charismatic, knowledgeable, and animated.

The second section consisted of questions relating to public speaking instruction. In response to question 2-1 "Do you believe your public speaking instruction varied because of your gender?", a majority of male and female interview subjects did not believe their public speaking instruction varied because of their gender (3 male & 3 female). Five subjects did not respond to question 2-1. In response to question 2-2, "Would you have preferred public speaking instruction suited to your gender?" both men and women did not prefer public speaking instruction suited to their gender, with seven respondents not responding to the question.

Male and female interview subjects were asked "How would you describe the ideal public speaking classroom environment from the student's perspective?" (question 2-3). Responses indicated an agreement between men and women. Males used descriptors such as comfortable, group work, use of videotape, friendly, non-evaluative, and small class size. Females used descriptors such as comfortable, use of videotape, small class size, non-evaluative, and activity-centered.

Men and women respondents' descriptions of the ideal public speaking instructor were similar. Question 2-4 asked, "Describe the behaviors of the ideal public speaking instructor?" Males described the ideal as someone who is non-intimidating, impartial, patient, animated, knowledgeable, and effective. Females described the ideal as someone who is open, relaxed, motivating, non-critical, informative, and energetic.

In response to question 2-5, "Do you believe there is an equal representation of examples and samples of male and female speeches in the public speaking classroom?", both male and female interview subjects reported that there is an unequal representation of male and female speech examples in the public speaking classroom. Six respondents did not respond to question 2-5.

The third section consisted of questions pertaining to perceived gender differences in public speaking. Question 3-1 asked respondents, "Do you believe that male and female speakers differ in regards to their public speaking style?" Six males and six females believed that male and female speakers possess different styles. Two males and one female noted no differences (question 3-1). Those who believed gender differences existed were asked to describe the areas of these differences. Male responses included the following: (a) differences in delivery style, and (b) differences in conversational style. Men believed males use more aggressive gestures, are more assertive, and desire challenge. Men also believed women document sources more effectively, follow dress-for-success codes, and need more acceptance and camaraderie. Female responses included; (a) differences in nonverbal communication, and (b) differences in delivery style. Women believed males are more authoritarian, appeal to facts and thoughts, and use more eye contact. Women also believed females adopt male styles to be accepted, appeal to emotions and feelings, and are not as willing to open up.

When asked, "Do you prefer listening to a male or a female speaker or have no preference?", all respondents indicated no preference (question 3-2). In response to question 3-3, "Does the gender of the speaker affect the speaker's credibility and persuasibility?", three males and three females believed the gender of the speaker affects the speaker's credibility and persuasibility. Two males and three females believed there was no effect, and three males and one female indicated it depends on the subject matter (question 3-3).

A majority of the respondents agreed with question 3-4, "Do you believe society accepts both male and female speakers equally?" (5 male & 5 female). Three males and two females did believe in the equal acceptance of male and female speakers (question 3-4). Question 3-5 asked respondents, "Do you believe gender differences in public speaking behavior should be discussed and explored more fully by researchers and practitioners?" All male interview subjects and six of the female subjects agreed that gender differences in public speaking behavior should be discussed and explored more fully by researchers and practitioners.

Research Question 5 Results

Curriculum Plan Development

Research question five stated: "What are the essential steps for developing recommendations to the Communications Department Chair which will facilitate the integration of gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec?" To determine the answers to the fifth research question, the following steps were taken: (a) extensive reviews of the literature were conducted; and (b) a plan was developed.

Literature Review

Since 1975, over 100 institutions have established formal projects to transform their curricula through the incorporation of insights and perspectives arising from the new scholarship on women (University of Maryland at College Park, 1988). These projects have varied widely in purpose, scope, institutional context, and funding sources. Several college and university consortia have projects which sponsor faculty development activities, sharing resources among institutions such as Great Lakes Colleges Association, the Five Colleges Consortium and the Western States Project on Women in the Curriculum (p. 1). At the disciplinary level, professional organizations such as the American Psychological Association, the American Sociological Association, and the American Anthropological Association have all sponsored projects to assist faculty members in incorporating the new scholarship on women into introductory courses (p. 2).

The Southwest Institute for Research on Women (1986) presented results of 19 curriculum revision programs aimed at integrating women's studies into the curriculum. The University of Maryland at College Park (1988) also developed a program, "Making a Difference for Women," which offered three conclusions. First, the undergraduate curriculum of the College Park campus should be transformed to incorporate, in all disciplines, the contributions and perspectives of women. Second, the classroom climate should be made equitable for women by having women's ambitions nurtured, their talents developed, and their worth affirmed. Third, women should be encouraged to enter those disciplines in which they have been underrepresented (p. 2).

Of importance to the directors of the "Making a Difference for Women" project was the transformation of the curriculum and the classroom climate. A fundamental goal for improving the learning environment for women students included the education of both faculty members and students about the dynamics of faculty/student interaction around gender in the classroom (Beck, Greer, Jackson, & Schmitz, 1990. p. 177).

The Western States Project on Women in the Curriculum cites examples of curriculum-revision projects. Of the following curriculum-revision projects, four include issues such as classroom climate, pedagogy, and teaching methods. For example, Heritage College in Toppenish, Washington reviewed and revised its curriculum to integrate women's studies into the curriculum. Four major activities were cited as ways to achieve this goal. A committee determined that the following should be implemented: (a) the development of a workshop to raise the level of awareness of faculty about the new scholarship on women and its implications for reconceptualizing the discipline, (b) the development and dissemination of course-specific bibliographies for faculty, (c) the acquisition of library and media resources in women's studies, and (d) research assistance for faculty undertaking course revision (Southwest Institute for Research on Women, 1986, p. 17).

Kansas State University in Manhattan, Kansas decided that the first activity in curriculum revision was the analysis of current syllabi and the arrangement of meetings with faculty about needs for their classes (Southwest Institute for Research on Women, 1986, p. 19). Fairhaven College in Bellingham, Washington assembled a committee which suggested four goals towards the inclusion of women in the curriculum:

1. The first goal is to familiarize faculty with new feminist scholarship and acquaint them with the issues and methodological challenges of curriculum integration.

2. The second goal is to restructure the substance and form of core classes to reflect equity in gender, race, and class.

3. The third goal is to explore pedagogical techniques for helping students learn to question assumptions and methodologies in traditional approaches to knowledge.

4. The fourth goal is to develop a model core curriculum that might be adapted on a larger scale (p. 11).

The University of North Dakota in Grand Forks, North Dakota designed a project to meet the faculty's perceived need for gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methods. The goals of the plan included a redefining of the term "curriculum" to include not only what students learn, but also how they learn or are impeded from learning. Additional goals included a discussion on the subject of classroom climate for women students and the development of teams of faculty members to help each other with changing their teaching methods and behavior (Southwest Institute for Research on Women, 1986, p. 34).

Unrelated to the University of Maryland at College Park project or the 19 curriculum-revision projects described by the Southwest Institute for Research on Women, Freeman (1990) illustrates an inclusive curriculum seminar presented by a school district in New Jersey. The most noteworthy result of the seminar was the discussion of pedagogy and the hidden curriculum of exclusion (p. 72). One solution provided by Freeman was the inclusion of a reading group. "This staff-development reading group, which helps teachers become better acquainted with recent feminist scholarship, consists of women and men from diverse cultural, racial, and ethnic backgrounds . . ." (p. 70).

The report of the Subcommittee on Undergraduate Women's Education noted that a considerable body of research exists that supports the influence of the learning environment on learning outcomes for students (University of Maryland at College Park, 1988, p. 10).

Curriculum-revision projects, such as those previously described, provide various options for developing an inclusive classroom climate for women. "Research on women results in the discovery of information and materials on women's lives, accomplishments, and culture which can be added to our existing knowledge; its goals are to integrate these new findings into the curriculum and present a truer, more complete understanding of human experience" (Association of American Colleges, 1982, p. 3).

Who is in Charge of Curriculum Revision. Faculty play an important role in curriculum revision plans, and should take the initiative in implementing such plans (Cannon, 1990; McCarthy, 1990; Wood & Lenze, 1991a, 1991b). K. Foss (1992), S. Foss (1992), Helle (1994), Makau (1993), Peterson (1991), Rakow (1993), Rothenberg (1994), and Thomas (1993) believe that the curriculum transformation process should begin in the classroom and be initiated by faculty members. Cooper (1993), Harris, Silverstein and Andrews (1989), Ivy and Backlund (1994), and Roop (1989) suggest that faculty members should lead the curriculum revision implementation process. However, DiCroce (1995), Higginbotham (1990), Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994), and Wood and Lenze (1991a) argue that administrators, college presidents, and the institution itself should be responsible for change.

At least two groups of people exist within the staff of the community college, the traditionalist and the iconoclasts (Harvey & Valadez, 1994). The traditionalists, who know how things were done in the past, are the same faculty who have assumed the role of the "standard bearers of the organization" (p. 83). These faculty members believe the students should adapt their behavior to existing standards and norms. Traditionalists, who value academic freedom, may resent being required to teach specific course content or implement certain pedagogical techniques (Paige-Pointer & Auletta, 1990). Conversely, the iconoclasts contend that the institution must make adjustments to fulfill the broader needs of the community. The iconoclasts recognize a need for "diversifying the institution to provide broader perspectives, to provide more role models for minority students, and to strengthen the institution by including more groups in the system" (p. 85). Titus (1994) believes that novice instructors may constitute another class of faculty members. "While teachers are not solely responsible for sexism and its resolution, beginning student teachers can hold deeply entrenched beliefs regarding gender" (p. 42). Recent reports of practicing teachers indicate that teacher preparation programs give scant attention to working with diverse populations (Avery & Walker, 1993).

McCarthy (1990) contends that school critics and government officials are speaking of curriculum reform without recognizing the important role of the classroom teacher. The axis of power in the classroom is the teacher-student relationship (Cannon, 1990, p. 129). Rothenberg (1994) believes the progressive faculty members, from any discipline, should remain in control of the curriculum transformation project. When faculty members with some expertise in feminist pedagogy play an active role in the transformation, the responsibility is where it should belong (p. 292). The transformation project should remain small during its first phase and become broader as knowledge about inclusive teaching methodologies becomes prevalent around the institution (Rothenberg, p. 292).

Sadker and Sadker (1992) demonstrate that after participating in a carefully designed faculty-development program, professors can learn how to eliminate inequitable practices in the classroom. For example, results from an equity training program conducted by Sadker and Sadker resulted in differences between the typical control-group classroom and the classroom headed by a trained faculty member. In the control-group classroom; male students dominated the interactions, while in the trained-faculty classroom, there was 38% more student interaction, and females and males were equally active in classroom discussion (p. 52). While Sadker and Sadker's training program is one of many, Webb (cited in Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996) developed a pedagogical strategy for persuading teachers to act as models by using nonsexist language and adopting teaching strategies that include all students.

Wood and Lenze (1991a) assert that instructors are the most important source of change in institutional policies and behaviors (p. 18). Wood and Lenze (1991b) published an article outlining ways to incorporate both women's and men's developmental paths into communication-skill instruction. Wood and Lenze believe faculty should gather reading materials which help them learn about gender sensitivity. Those educators who already have experience with inclusive teaching methodologies could spearhead efforts to aid other unenlightened faculty. Faculty in the communications department, in particular, may organize informal programs on campus (Wood & Lenze, 1991a, p. 20). The inclusive classroom includes the flexibility of the instructor's teaching repertoire and his/her readiness to draw on a range of teaching styles (Adams, 1992). "The role of college faculty in . . . transmitting a dominant cultural system . . . is especially important [because] all roads lead back to the faculty who have control in matters of teaching, evaluation, and curriculum" (Adams, 1992).

Cooper (1993) suggests that faculty members gather more information about the diversity of the female experience, reconceptualize the curricula, and infuse alternative approaches into the curriculum. Roop (1989) believes that teachers should be trained in choosing nonsexist curriculum materials, in learning inclusive classroom management techniques, and in implementing collaborative learning. According to Harris, Silverstein and Andrews (1989) an instructor can effect an immediate shift from competition and domination in the classroom structure to one of non-hierarchical egalitarianism. Ivy and Backlund created 14 suggestions for the teacher to consider when developing an inclusive classroom. Some of the recommendations include; (a) design and enforce inclusive policy statements, (b) use terms which include both women and men, (c) give males and females equal time to respond to questions, and (d) make an effort to call on female students as well as males (p. 387). "School teachers must be centrally involved in the reworking of the curriculum and the reorganization of the school in ways that give them a sense of professional autonomy and ownership over curriculum changes" (McCarthy, 1990).

Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994) believe that college is the time when an impact can be made and when institutional values can make a difference regarding male and female communication differences. The institution itself has a role in the process of curriculum revision, especially in creating an environment for female faculty members to become involved in decision-making (p. 698). In order for female faculty members to have a voice in the curriculum-transformation process, the institution should; (a) include more women in decision-making, (b) create open and visible procedures for accomplishing this, (c) develop equitable treatment of all females, and (d) produce a climate of support (Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993). Higginbotham (1990) believes that support for faculty is critical in the success of curriculum revision projects. Departments with a greater desire toward learning facilitation are more likely to design courses and create a learning environment which encourages meaningful learning (Kember & Gow, 1994). At some universities, faculty members have developed workshops regarding gender communication in the classroom. Participants in these workshops are introduced to methods to make their classroom more inclusive and more equitable for women and those of different ethnic backgrounds (Wood, 1994).

While researchers such as K. Foss (1992), S. Foss (1992), Helle (1994), Makau (1993), Peterson (1991), Rakow (1993), Rothenberg (1994) and Thomas (1993) believe that the curriculum-transformation process should begin in the classroom and be initiated by faculty members, DiCroce (1995) contends that female and male college presidents can provide a blueprint for action (p. 79). The first step is to break down institutional gender stereotypes. The second step involves college presidents redefining power and the institution's power structure to include more feminine styles of leadership. The third step consists of the enactment and enforcement of strong policies on sexual harassment and other gender-related institutional issues. The fourth step involves college presidents initiating collegial discussion on gender and related issues. Finally, the fifth step requires college presidents to campaign for changes in public policy that will take gender issues into account (p. 86).

Wood and Lenze (1991a) also believe that administrators can play an active role in producing an inclusive classroom environment.

First, higher-education administrators can voice their support of gender-sensitive teaching. Second, administrators can fund speakers and programs on gender sensitivity (p. 18). Higginbotham (1990) agrees by stating that "college administrators can encourage efforts with release time, financial support for workshops and institutes, and the like" (p. 11).

Plan for Developing Recommendations to Communications Department

The plan for incorporating gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec consists of four recommendations. The Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec is the target for the first three recommendations, while the fourth recommendation involves campus-wide support. While internal or external funding is not required for the implementation of the recommendations at this time, in the future internal or external funding may need to be secured.

The first recommendation to the Communications Department Chair for integrating gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec is to develop a reference manual that contains a compilation of research materials concerning men's and women's public speaking styles and inclusive teaching methodologies. Full-time faculty members of the Communications Department and interested part-time members make up the target population. Elements of the reference manual are based upon findings of this project and include the following: (a) summaries of gender differences in communication research; (b) summaries of inclusive pedagogy research articles; (c) strategies for implementing inclusive teaching methodologies; (d) suggestions for incorporating inclusive pedagogy; and (e) a bibliography (see Appendix R).

The second recommendation to the Communications Department Chair for integrating gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec is to develop a guide that analyzes gender communication materials within the context of public speaking. Elements of the guide are based on the findings of this project and include the following: (a) results of an analysis of public speaking textbooks and tradebooks, (b) examples of the current status of public speaking course content, and (c) public speaking curriculum-revision plans (see Appendix S). The guide would serve as material for workshops on incorporating gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies.

The third recommendation to the Communications Department Chair for integrating gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec is to provide three 2-hour workshops based upon findings of this project. A review of the literature determined that two hour workshops aimed at faculty members from specific departments prove to be more successful than college-wide curriculum diversity workshops (Goodstein, 1994). Full-time faculty members of the Communications Department and interested part-time members make up the target population. The writer of this project would be the facilitator of the workshops. The goals and objectives of the workshops were determined from the research questions, related reviews of literature, an analysis of public speaking textbooks and tradebooks, and results of the questionnaire and interviews.

The goal of workshop one is to update participants about gender differences in public speaking behavior and provide a common base of knowledge of gender differences in public speaking behavior. The objectives are to complete the following: (a) present differences in public speaking styles and speech organization, (b) report on men's and women's styles of language usage, (c) describe gender differences in communication apprehension and use of humor, (d) present gender differences in nonverbal communication, (e) report on men's and women's styles of influence and persuasibility, (f) explain how men and women engage in self-evaluation and evaluation of others, and (g) report section three results from the questionnaire and interviews. The reference manual to be developed as part of the first recommendation would serve as handout material (see Appendix T).

The goal of workshop two is to have the participants understand learning styles in general and women's preferred styles of learning. The objectives are to complete the following: (a) report on the status of women in higher education, (b) describe the preferred learning styles of women as identified in relevant literature, (c) describe the teaching strategies that have been identified in the literature that correlate with women's preferred styles of learning, and (d) report results from the questionnaire and interviews (see Appendix U).

The goal of workshop three is to have participants identify the strategies that can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, and incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course. The objectives are to complete the following: (a) report on the current status of the public speaking course content as determined through the literature, (b) report on the results of the analysis of public speaking textbooks and tradebooks, (c) present curriculum-revision plans for the public speaking course, (d) present instructional strategies for the public speaking course which include women, (e) identify who is responsible for developing a curriculum based on gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies, and (f) report results from the questionnaire and interviews. The guide to be developed from the second recommendation would serve as handout material (see Appendix V).

The fourth recommendation to the Communications Department Chair for integrating gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec is to provide a campus-wide staff-development program based upon findings of this project. The purpose of the program is to increase faculty's awareness of gender communication research and inclusive teaching methodologies and to aid them in implementing gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in their own courses. The objectives are to complete the following: (a) provide material on gender differences in communication, (b) report on the status of women in higher education, (c) describe the "chilly climate" for women in college classrooms, including student question-asking behavior and gender inequity, (d) provide material on inclusive pedagogy, (e) provide strategies for implementing inclusive teaching methodologies, (f) identify who is responsible for developing a curriculum based on gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies, and (g) offer suggestions for incorporating inclusive teaching methodologies within the college classroom (see Appendix W).

The implementation of this plan for the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec consists of nine steps:

1. The Communications Department Chair requires the lead faculty member of the public speaking course to provide evidence that supports the need to revise the course content and instructional methodology of the public speaking course. Evidence consists of data from the analyses of the Program Evaluations for 1990 and 1993, public speaking enrollment trends, preliminary results from the Task Force on General Education Reform, data from the 1995 survey conducted by the Speech Communication Association (SCA), and the reviews of literature expressing the need for public speaking curriculum revision. Evidence presented in report form will be later included in the handouts developed for use in the departmental workshops.

2. A committee composed of the Communications Department Chair, Assistant Chair and the public speaking lead faculty member will establish an ad hoc group of three full-time faculty members to gather additional information and resources on non-biased public speaking course content and inclusive teaching methodologies.

3. The public speaking lead faculty member will develop a reference manual describing gender differences in public speaking behavior and outlining inclusive teaching methodologies.

4. The committee will draft a memo to be distributed to all full and part-time Communications Department faculty members requesting feedback and concerns about the planned curriculum revision of the public speaking course. A formative evaluation committee will be

established to act in an advisory manner. This advisory committee will be composed of faculty members within the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec. This advisory committee will provide the necessary direction and leadership as well as demonstrate the department's commitment to the project.

5. The committee will analyze the additional information provided by faculty members and discusses implementation of the plan. A revision of the plan may result from faculty members' comments. A summative evaluation committee consisting of content experts in the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec will provide information on content validity and the feasibility of implementing the plan.

6. The Communications Department Chair approves the plan or requests a revision of the plan.

7. If the plan is adopted, the Communications Department Chair will request the lead faculty member to develop three departmental level staff-development workshops to inform full and part-time faculty of the revised public speaking curriculum. The advisory committee will also provide the necessary encouragement to nurture active participation.

8. After a one-semester trial of the revised curriculum, the plan will be reassessed. Upon completion of the pilot study, an analysis should identify any problems and should facilitate appropriate changes or restructuring of the plan. If the assessment by the Communications Department Chair and Assistant Department Chair determines the project is successful, the Communications Department Chair may recommend that all communications courses adopt the curriculum and implement inclusive teaching methodologies.

9. The Communications Department Chair and Assistant Department Chair may recommend to the Associate Dean of Communications and Mathematics that the project be implemented on a campus-wide level.

An important aspect of implementation is the exploration of internal and external funding sources for the development of departmental workshops, manuals, reports, and possibly, campus-wide staff-development workshops. SLCC-Meramec does award extended and release time awards for faculty development, and this could provide the initial support for implementation. Campus-wide staff-development funds could be secured, if the funding proposal for the project should receive support from the staff-development funding committee. Each staff development funding proposal is competitively assessed each semester, and monetary allowances are awarded to worthy projects.

In order to evaluate the results of the implementation of the plan, it is recommended that participants in the departmental workshops evaluate each of the three workshop sessions, and evaluate the ancillary handout materials. It is also recommended that student evaluations of the public speaking course be monitored.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

The purpose of this project was to investigate gender differences in public speaking behavior and to develop a plan which includes gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies for the public speaking class at SLCC-Meramec. Collett and Serrano (1992), Snyder and Hoffman (1993), Townsend (1995), and Twombly (1993) indicate that women are becoming the majority of community college students. SLCC-Meramec's enrollment reflects the research with a student body that is 59% female. Classroom-participation research (Gerlach & Hart, 1992; Karabenick & Sharma, 1994; Sadker & Sadker, 1992) indicates that classroom interaction patterns, classroom climate, and curricular content tend to create an environment that excludes women. Studies by Kelly (1991) and Pearson and West (1991) indicate that female students' behaviors are often discredited in the classroom.

Carli, LaFleur and Loeber (1995), Kearney and Plax (1996), Kramarae (1981), and Tannen (1990) assert that men and women maintain separate and distinct public speaking styles. Language (Mulac & Lundell, 1994), humor (Arliss, 1991), nonverbal communication (Knapp & Hall, 1992), influence and persausibility (Carli, et al., 1995), evaluation (Clark, 1993) and listening behavior (Tannen, 1990) show gender differences significant enough to create stereotypes and accepted models of communication behavior.

Survey results from 139 respondents indicate that 78.4% believe gender differences in public speaking behavior exist. Respondents believe that gender differences exist in each of the 13 areas listed in the questionnaire, including nonverbal communication, credibility, listening, speech organization, and evaluation. Approximately 67% of the survey respondents did not believe women's issues were addressed in the public speaking course. A total of 52.8% of respondents agreed that women's preferred learning styles were not a part of the public speaking classroom. A majority of the respondents (62.8%) believed that the method of instruction used in the public speaking course affected the degree of gender differences present in the classroom.

Respondents suggested that more examples of female speakers, different speech assignments, and collaborative learning opportunities would create a classroom environment more accepting of women. A total of 72.5% of the respondents indicated that they would prefer collaborative learning opportunities in the public speaking course.

Interview respondents (see Appendix Q) reported that a majority believed their public speaking style reflected their gender. When the 15 interview participants were asked to determine if male and female public speaking styles existed, a total of 12 believed different styles were prevalent. A majority of the respondents agreed that society does not accept both male and female speakers equally. Male and female interview respondents agreed on the elements of an ideal public speaking classroom and the characteristics of the ideal public speaking instructor. Fourteen of the 15 respondents agreed that gender differences in public speaking behavior should be discussed and explored more fully by researchers and practitioners.

Textbooks have consistently ignored the discoveries of females, and continue to present a majority of male examples (Ferree & Hall, 1990; Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Peterson & Kroner, 1992; Wood, 1994). An analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicates that references to gender specific behavior is consistently absent. Results from this analysis of public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicate that students of public speaking may be receiving gender biased information, because the content of these texts appears to be exclude women and other groups.

In order to address the gender differences in public speaking behavior and create an inclusive climate for male and female students, a plan was developed for the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec. An advisory committee was selected to provide leadership and guide the plan towards implementation (see Appendix N). A summative committee of content specialists validated the plan for content and implementation feasibility (see Appendix O).

The development of the plan focused on the following: (a) identifying gender differences in public speaking behavior, (b) reporting on the classroom climate, (c) determining learning styles of males and females, (d) providing inclusive teaching methodologies, and (e) finding appropriate strategies for integrating gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course.

The information from this research was analyzed and a reference manual, guide, three two-hour workshops, and one campus-wide staff development program were developed. The reference manual contains a compilation of research materials concerning men's and women's public speaking styles and inclusive teaching methodologies. The guide provides gender communication materials within the context of public speaking, including curriculum-revision plans.

The first workshop is to provide a common base of knowledge of gender differences in public speaking behavior. The second workshop is to allow participants to understand learning styles in general and women's preferred styles of learning. The third workshop is to identify the strategies which can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, and incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course. The purpose of the campus-wide staff-development program is to increase faculty's awareness of gender communication research and inclusive teaching methodologies and to aid them in implementing gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies within their own courses.

Conclusions

The conclusions that can be drawn from the answers to the first research question, "What does the literature yield regarding gender differences in public speaking behavior?", are as follows: (a) men and women possess different public speaking styles, (b) society accepts the male model of speaking, (c) men and women organize speech material differently, (d) men utilize an instrumental style of language whereas women apply an expressive style, (e) men and women use nonverbal communication differently, (f) men have a greater chance of influencing the audience than women, (g) women evaluate themselves more harshly than men, and (h) men receive more favorable evaluations than women.

The conclusions that can be drawn from the answers to the second research question, "What does the literature yield regarding women's preferred styles of learning?", are as follows: (a) men and women possess separate and distinct learning styles, (b) women prefer a relational and "connected knowing" paradigm, (c) traditional education supports the male model of learning, and (d) feminist pedagogy supports the female model of learning.

The conclusions that can be drawn from the answers to the third research question, "What does the literature yield regarding public speaking instruction at institutions of higher education and the inclusion of women's styles of learning?", are as follows: (a) an androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, (b) textbooks include more examples of male speakers than female speakers, (c) a need exists for inclusive instructional strategies, and (d) curriculum revision plans provide examples for transforming the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

The conclusions that can be drawn from the answers to the fourth research question, "What teaching methodologies have been identified in the literature which would address women's preferred styles of learning?", are as follows: (a) collaboration, non-competitive discussion strategies, and interactive teaching methodologies were identified as complementary to women's preferred learning styles, (b) feminist pedagogy was identified as enhancing women's style of learning, and (c) cooperative learning was found to be an inclusive instructional strategy conducive to women's ways of learning.

Conclusions reached from the survey are as follows: (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning (i.e., cooperative, inclusive) nor does it include issues related to women or multi-culturalism, (b) men and women should not receive instruction in public speaking targeted to a specific gender, (c) men and women believe the public speaking course could be more accepting of women and women's preferred styles of learning, (d) men and women agree that gender differences exist in public speaking behavior, (e) men and women are evaluated differently by peers, (f) men and women are not evaluated differently by instructors, (g) men and women do not evaluate themselves differently, (h) societal stereotypes are the primary reason for gender differences in public speaking behavior, (i) the method of instruction and the gender of the instructor can affect the degree of gender differences in the classroom, and (j) speakers and educators should be responsible for dealing with gender differences in public speaking behavior.

Conclusions reached from the interviews are as follows: (a) a majority of men and women would like to change their public speaking style, (b) a majority of men and women report that their public speaking style reflects their gender, (c) men and women believe socially desired public speaking styles exist, (d) men and women agree on descriptions of the ideal public speaking classroom and the ideal public speaking instructor, (e) men and women indicate that an unequal representation of male and female speech examples exist, (f) a majority of men and women agree that men and women possess different public speaking styles, and (g) a majority of men and women believe that society does not accept both male and female speakers equally.

The conclusions that can be drawn from the answers to the fifth research question, "What are the essential steps for developing recommendations to the Communications Department Chair that will facilitate the integration of gender communication content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec?", are as follows: (a) curriculum-transformation programs provide examples for integrating gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, (b) faculty should become the primary source of curriculum revision projects, and (c) a plan to incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies at SLCC-Meramec should include the development of a manual, report, three departmental workshops, and a campus-wide staff-development program.

Implications

Four implications resulted from this project. The following implications have the potential to affect the student, faculty, and administrative populations at SLCC-Meramec:

1. The materials generated from the extensive literature reviews could provide faculty members with relevant content information regarding gender differences in public speaking behavior, learning styles, inclusive pedagogy, inclusive teaching methodologies, and curriculum-revision plans. The outline of the manual, presented to the Communications Department, includes such elements as bibliographies, summaries of gender differences in communication and pedagogical research articles, strategies for implementing inclusive teaching methodologies, and suggestions for incorporating feminist pedagogy in the classroom. The faculty manual could impact instruction in courses such as public speaking, oral communications, and other courses which require public presentation. Thus, students enrolled in communications courses at SLCC-Meramec may be recipients of beginning attempts at curriculum revision.

2. Results from the reviews of literature regarding traditional public speaking course content and instructional methodologoies revealed that a need exists for inclusive instructional strategies to be implemented within the public speaking course. An outline of a report analyzing gender communication materials within the context of public speaking was developed. As a result, when this report is presented to the Communications Department faculty, instructors at SLCC-Meramec could begin to incorporate the research materials into course planning, syllabus preparation, and the selection of teaching methodologies in a variety of courses, particularly Public Speaking (COM 107), Male/Female Communication (COM 511), and Oral Communication (COM 101). Information obtained from the results of the questionnaire and the interviews could provide Communications faculty with information relevant to the SLCC-Meramec campus. Communications students could benefit from improvements in course planning and syllabus preparation.

3. A combination of the reviews of literature and the results from the questionnaire and the interviews resulted in the development of a plan to implement three two-hour training sessions to help Communications Department faculty acquire knowledge in inclusive teaching methodologies, feminist pedagogy, and women's scholarship. Each two-hour workshop contains specific goals and objectives. Participation in one or more of these workshops could provide Communications faculty members with the necessary materials to begin implementation of gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in their own classrooms.

4. Conclusions reached from the results of the questionnaire and the interviews provided the material for an outline of a staff-development workshop for the entire campus on the topic of gender communication and inclusive teaching methodologies. It is not within the scope of this project to anticipate college-wide curriculum reform; however, faculty members could become aware of the impact of gender in the classroom and develop strategies to include women's preferred learning styles. SLCC-Meramec administrators may be prompted to actively consider future staff-development programs emphasizing gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies.

Recommendations

In order to implement the plan to incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies within the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, departmental and institutional support must be established. The Communications Department Chair, Assistant Department Chair, and advisory committees will guide the plan towards implementation at the departmental level. Ancillary aspects of implementation include securing funding and evaluating the project.

Recommendations for Implementation

St. Louis Community College-Meramec continues to impress upon its faculty, through its mission statement, district-wide strategic plans and staff-development programs, the need for continuous improvement of teaching strategies, and the inclusion of all students on campus within its curriculum. This project of teaching faculty how to incorporate gender-fair content within the public speaking course and possibly within other communication courses and to begin using inclusive teaching methodologies is one of the first steps towards achieving this goal. Developing inclusive teaching methodologies, based on a firm theoretical foundation established by experts in feminist pedagogy and cooperative learning, may prove to be an additional step in the direction of diversity education and fostering collaboration and cooperation among students and faculty alike. How we communicate is as important as what we communicate. Therefore, it is imperative that faculty members begin to incorporate in the classroom environment how men and women communicate along with how they each learn. It is important that all students have an equal voice in the classroom.

Recommendations for Dissemination

This plan will be presented to the Communications Department Chair, Assistant Department Chair, Associate Dean of Mathematics and Communication, and all full-time Communications Department faculty members. As a result of the plan being presented to the Associate Dean of Mathematics and Communications, this plan might also eventually be presented to all SLCC-Meramec full-time faculty as part of a staff-development program. The results of this plan will be presented at an upcoming annual meeting of the Organization for the Study of Communication, Language, and Gender (OSCLG). The report will also be presented as an entry for the Cheris Kramarae Dissertation Award presented through the Organization for the Study of Communication, Language, and Gender. Based on the results of this plan, a paper will be presented to the Speech Communication Association (SCA) Convention review board for possible acceptance as a convention paper at the annual meeting. Further dissemination should also include presentations at professional meetings that focus on women's issues and curriculum reform. Finally, the results of this plan should be submitted to journals such as Communication Education, Psychology of Women Quarterly, Women Studies in Communication, and Women's Studies Quarterly.

Recommendations for Further Research

Once the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec has integrated gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course, further research is recommended to determine if the plan can be adapted to other communication courses within the department. Additional study should be undertaken to ascertain whether the plan can be implemented within other departments at the college. Further research is also recommended to determine if the plan can be implemented in settings other than SLCC-Meramec.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A

List of Transfer Institutions and Summary of Telephone Survey

St. Louis Community
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TO: Communications Department Faculty

FROM: Bob Dixon, Communications Department Chair

Transfer Institutions

- Central Missouri State University
- Concordia University Wisconsin-St. Louis Center
- Fontbonne University
- Harris Stowe College
- Lindenwood College
- Logan Chiropractic College
- Maryville University
- Northeast Missouri State University
- Northwest Missouri State University
- Southeast Missouri State University
- Southern Illinois University-Edwardsville
- St. Louis University
- University of Missouri-Columbia
- University of Missouri-Rolla
- University of Missouri-St. Louis
- Washington University
- Webster University

Telephone Survey Summary

Once each year, Mr. Bob Dixon, Communications Department Chair, conducts telephone surveys with the Communications Department chairs at the transfer institutions. Most of the survey data is gathered through the telephone interviews, however, Mr. Dixon also confers with department chairs at professional meetings and academic conferences throughout the year. The telephone survey or professional meeting consists of three major questions.

1. What communications courses will the institution accept for transfer credit?
2. What communications courses will the institution accept for transfer credit within a communications major?
3. What criteria must be met for each transfer course in order to insure transferability? Follow up: What are the required major components of a transfer communications course?

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Results of Survey

Response to Question #1: *What communications courses will the institution accept for transfer credit?*

Oral Communication (COM 101) and Public Speaking (COM 107) would be accepted at all transfer institutions, however, public speaking would need to be taken by those students majoring in business and education, regardless of transfer credit for Oral Communication. Therefore, Public Speaking must be taken in addition to Oral Communication for education and business majors. Communication Among Cultures (COM 200) would be accepted as a humanities credit, in addition to its communications transfer status.

Response to Question #2: *What communications courses will the institution accept for transfer credit within a communications major?*

Advanced courses such as Oral Communication II (COM 102) and Male/Female Communication (COM 511) would be accepted as electives within a communications major. Students would also be able to enroll in advanced communications courses as general electives.

Response to Question #3: *What criteria must be met for each transfer course in order to insure transferability? Follow up: What are the required major components of a tranfer communications course?*

All transfer communication courses must include performance credit, such as delivery of a speech, conducting an interview, and/or role-playing specific communication situations. Students should be required to show mastery in one or more performance behaviors. Any communications transfer course must be offered at the transfer institution in order for it to be considered as transfer credit. Therefore, if a particular communications course is offered at SLCC, however, not available at the transfer institution, then the SLCC communications course would not be transferred.

Appendix B

Task Force on General Education Reform

St. Louis Community College
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College-Wide Task Force on General Education Reform

Membership: The College-Wide Task Force on General Education Reform consists of 15 faculty members representing the Meramec Florissant Valley and Forest Park campuses of the St. Louis Community College district. The chair of the task force is Dr. Irving P. McPhail, President of the Florissant Valley campus.
Responsibility: Chancellor Gwendolyn W. Stephenson charged the College-Wide Task Force on General Education Reform on November2, 1995 with the following responsibilities:

- **answering the fundamental question:**
  - ⇒ "What is the point of general education at St. Louis Community College for the requirements of the 21st Century?"
- **reviewing and analyzing the contemporary issues and trends in general education reform in the following disciplines:**
  - ⇒ Arts and Humanities
  - ⇒ Social and Behavioral Sciences
  - ⇒ Mathematics, Science, Engineering and Technology
- **reviewing and analyzing examples of innovative course programs and approaches, including:**
  - ⇒ integrating basic skills development with general education course sequence
  - ⇒ infusing international and multi-cultural perspectives
  - ⇒ improving teaching and learning
  - ⇒ assessing outcomes
  - ⇒ integrating general education into transfer and career programs
  - ⇒ introducing interdisciplinary courses
- **defining district vs. Campus issues and concerns in sustaining the vitality of general education**
- **providing interim reports of task force accomplishments to the College community through periodic publication of *General Education Update***
- **providing a final report to Chancellor Stephenson in June, 1997**

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Aim of General Education at St. Louis Community College

We believe it is the purpose of general education at St. Louis Community College to prepare students to:

* * *

1. **LIVE EFFECTIVELY** by understanding and dealing constructively with the diversity of the contemporary world, a diversity manifested not only in ideas and ways of knowing, but also in populations and cultures,

2. **LEARN CONTINUOUSLY** by constructing a coherent framework for ongoing intellectual, ethical, and aesthetic growth in the presence of such diversity, and

3. **WORK PRODUCTIVELY** by enlarging their personal and vocational pathways and developing lifelong competencies such as critical and creative thinking, written and oral communication, quantitative reasoning and problem solving.

* * *

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General Education Skills Area Outcomes

A. THINK CRITICALLY

Definition: Critical thinking is inherent in logical reasoning and problem solving. One must value critical thinking in order to reason logically and solve problems. To think critically, one must understand the context of an idea and how it relates to the whole.

B. COMMUNICATE EFFECTIVELY

Definition: Effective communication requires accurate and critical reading, clear and effective writing, coherent speaking and objective analysis. It also requires observational skills and the ability to listen. A good communicator knows his or her own strengths and weaknesses in this area.

C. PRODUCTIVE INTERACTION WITH OTHERS

Definition: Productive interaction requires that we appreciate and accept each person's individuality, foster cooperation, constructively solve conflicts, view others in a positive light, encourage self-awareness, adapt to a fluid social environment, and use all of the above to productively work in a group.

D. VALUE AND PRACTICE INQUIRY

Definition: Inquiry is not only seeking information, but looking beyond the question at hand to seek new questions.

E. ACCESS, ANALYZE AND USE INFORMATION

Definition: Information can be stored in a variety of locations. One must be able to access and use this information for life long learning.

F. ACCEPT PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY

Definition: Responsibility requires a balance among the intellectual, physical, psychological, social and spiritual aspects of self, and compels one to act upon consequent convictions.

G. TRANSFORM HUMAN CULTURE

Definition: Liberal learning nurtures the capabilities for transforming human culture through inculcating a commitment to change, ethical development and maintenance/betterment of society and its communities.

Appendix C

1990 and 1993 Communications Department Program Evaluation Goals and Objectives

St. Louis Community College
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SLCC-Meramec Communications Department Goals and Objectives for 1990

1. The Communications Department will provide resources, support, and assistance to instructors for instructional effectiveness and staff development.

- Objective 1a: The Department Chair and Assistant Department Chair will review support materials, especially for Oral Communications (COM 101) and Introduction to Mass Communications (MCM 101), and determine further needs.
- Objective 1b: The Department Chair will evaluate such support needs in recommending release/extended time projects within the department.
- Objective 1c: The Department will use committees and ad hoc groups to further instructional support needs.
- Objective 1d: A survey of students (current and former) will be used to determine student's views on the effectiveness of instruction within the Communications Department.
- Objective 1e: The Department members will determine whenever possible what efforts are needed to assist in staff development.
- Objective 1f: The Assistant Department Chair will coordinate the instructional needs and resources for part-time faculty.

2. The Communications Department will provide course offerings to meet the degree requirement needs of students and academic programs.

- Objective 2a: The Department will support and maintain the basic Oral Communication course (COM 101) to meet the basic transfer and program requirements.
- Objective 2b: The Department will continue to provide a "survey approach" in the basic course. A survey approach to the discipline tends to satisfy the varied requirement needs of the different programs and receiving institutions.

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3. The Communications Department will strive to provide course offerings that complement the variety of schedule, demands, and interests existing in the student population.

- Objective 3a: **The Department Chair will review the various course offerings to determine that there are sufficient course offered during prime time (both MWF and TTh), afternoons (MWF and TTh), evenings, and weekends.**
- Objective 3b: The Department Chair will consult with Off Campus representatives to determine that sufficient courses are offered by the Communications Department at Off Campus locations.
- Objective 3c: The Department will include the requests made by Communications students during advising when developing schedules of department course offerings.

4. The Communications Department will provide (a) course, (b) programs, and (c) an associate's degree to meet the educational needs of our students. These will include:

A. Skill courses and groups of courses
B. Programs and cores of study
C. Communication arts/associate in arts degree

- Objective 4a: The Communications Department will determine the individual skill development courses and the groups of courses to offer. The Department will likewise determine how to rotate these courses by times, days, evenings, and weekends.
- Objective 4b: The Communications Department's Area Committees (Communications, Mass Communications, and Theatre) will maintain and provide support for the programs and areas of study within the department.
- Objective 4c: **The Department and Area Committees will provide advice, resource support, maintenance efforts, and development responsibility for the Communication Arts/Associate in Arts Programs.**

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Communications Department Goals and Objectives for 1993

1. The *Communications Department* will continue to develop the basic communications course. This is an annual goal of great importance; it is constant and it keeps changing. Without our efforts, we could not effectively meet the increasing demands of the course.

2. The *Communications Department* takes great pride in the quality of our programs in Communications and Mass Communications. The ability to provide students with a high quality freshman/sophomore orientation and core of courses is one of our greatest continuing goals.

3. The *Communications Department* with a continued goal to improve transferability of our courses and programs, will be examining and making recommendations concerning changes in our program.

4. The *Communications Department* will review the nature, use and needs of our instructional labs. The CNTV Lab, Film Lab, and Audio/Radio Lab will be reviewed and developed to provide students with the best learning assistance possible.

5. The *Communications Department* will continue to examine the needs of disabled students and develop instructional approaches to serve those needs effectively.

6. The *Communications Department* will continue to pursue the goal of assisting the study of diversity and the development of communication skills to most effectively deal with the communication aspects.

7. The *Communications Department* is fortunate to have the highest quality faculty, full and part-time. We will continue to provide meetings, workshops and programs to assist faculty development and sharing of instructional approaches.

Appendix D

1990 Communications Department Program Evaluation Summary of Results

St. Louis Community College
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1990 Communications Department Program Evaluation Summary of Results

Respondents: *Former students:* 123 *Current students:* 169

Composite results from both groups of respondents:

- Question asked students if they were satisfied with the number of courses offered by the Communications Department (not satisfied--satisfied-very satisfied)
  Results: 80% of respondents indicated they were satisfied.

- Question asked students if they were satisfied with the number of class sections offered by the Communications Department
  Results: 8% of respondents indicated they were satisfied.

- Question asked students if they were satisfied with the Communications Department's program.
  Results: 90 % of respondents indicated they were satisfied to very satisfied with the Communications Department's program.

- Question asked students if they planned on completing a degree.
  Results: 70% of respondents indicated they planned on completing a degree.

- Question asked students about the quality of instruction provided by the Communications Department faculty.
  Results: Faculty were rated 4.33 out of a possible 5.00 (5.00 = excellent)

- Question asked students to rate their instructors command of the subject matter.
  Results: Faculty were rated 4.46 out of a possible 5.00

- Question asked students to rate their instructors ability to communicate the subject matter effectively.
  Results: Faculty were rated 4.32 out of a possible 5.00

Appendix E

1993 Communications Department Program Evaluation Summary of Results

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1993 Communications Department Program Evaluation Summary of Results

Respondents: Former students: 499 Current students: 135

Composite results from both groups of respondents:

- Question asked students about the quality of instruction provided by the Communications Department faculty.
  Results: 44% very satisfied
  51% satisfied
  5% not satisfied

- Question asked students to rate their instructors command of the subject matter.
  Results: 54% very satisfied
  42% satisfied
  4% not satisfied

- Question asked students to rate their instructors ability to communicate the subject matter effectively.
  Results: 57% very satisfied
  38% satisfied
  5% not satisfied

- Question asked students to rate their instructors willingness and availability to help.
  Results: 53% very satisfied
  38% satisfied
  9% not satisfied

- Question asked students to rate the availability of course objectives.
  Results: 51% of very satisfied
  45% satisfied
  4% not satisfied

Appendix F

Speech Communication Association (SCA) Speaking and Listening Competencies

Speech Communication Association Speaking Competencies

In order to be a competent speaker, a person must be able to compose a message, and provide ideas and information suitable to the topic, purpose, and audience. This includes:

- Determining the purpose of the oral discourse
- Choosing a topic and restricting it according to the purpose and the audience
- Fulfilling the purpose by:
    a. formulating a thesis statement
    b. providing adequate support material
    c. selecting a suitable organizational pattern
    d. demonstrating careful choice of words
    e. providing effective transitions
    f. demonstrating suitable interpersonal skills

The competent speaker must also be able to transmit the message by using delivery skills suitable to the topic, purpose and audience. This includes:

- Employing vocal variety in rate, pitch, and intensity
- Articulating clearly
- Employing the level of American English appropriate to the designated audience
- Demonstrating nonverbal behavior which supports the verbal message

Speech Communication Association
Listening Competencies

In order to be a competent listener, a person must be able to listen with literal comprehension. This includes:

- Recognizing main ideas
- Identifying supporting details
- Recognizing explicit relationships
- Recalling basic ideas and details

The competent listener must also listen with critical comprehension. This includes:

- Attending with an open mind
- Perceiving the speaker's purpose and organization of ideas and information
- Discriminating between statements of fact and statements of opinion
- Distinguishing between emotional and logical arguments
- Detecting bias and prejudice
- Recognizing the speaker's attitude
- Synthesizing and evaluating by drawing logical inferences and conclusions
- Recalling the implications and arguments
- Recognizing discrepancies between speaker's verbal/nonverbal messages
- Employing active listening techniques when appropriate

Appendix G

Analysis of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks

List of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks	Gender Index	Number of female vs male speeches	Multi-cultural reference	Gender differences in language	Audience demo-graphics
Anderson, S., & Pryor, B. (1992). Speech fundamentals: A contemporary approach. Needham Heights, MA: Ginn Press.					X
Anthony, R. (1983). How to make a fortune from public speaking. New York, NY: Berkeley Books.					
Arredondo, L. (1991). How to present like a pro. New York: McGraw Hill.					X
Arredondo, L. (1994). Business presentations. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: McGraw Hill.					
Axtell, R. E. (1992). Do's and taboos of public speaking. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.					X
Becker, D., & Becker, P. B. (1993). Speaking skills for business careers. Homewood, IL: Irwin Mirror Press.					X
Bedrosian, M. M. (1987). Speak like a pro. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.					
Beebe, S. A., & Beebe, S. J. (1991). Public speaking: An audience-centered approach. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.			X		X
Belson, D. (1993). What to say and how to say it. New York, NY: Citadel Press Book.		Sexist terms			
Belson, D., & Belson, R. (1992). Speeches for every occasion. New York, NY: Citadel Press Book.					
Boylan, B. (1988). What's your point? New York, NY: Warner Books.	X			X	
Brilhart, J. K., Bourhis, J. S., Miley, B. R., & Berquist, C. A. (1992). Practical public speaking. New York, NY: HarperCollins.					X
Brown, L. (1989). Your public best. New York, NY: Newmarket Press.	X				

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List of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks	Gender Index	Number of female vs male speeches	Multi-cultural reference	Gender differences in language	Audience demo-graphics
Carnegie, D. (1936). How to win friends and influence people. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.					
Carnegie, D. (1962). The quick and easy way to effective speaking. Garden City, NY: Dale Carnegie & Associates, Inc.					
Cogan, E., & Padrow, B. (1984). You can talk to (almost) anyone about (almost) anything. Portland, OR: Cont. Ed., Pub.					X
Cook, J. S. (1989). The elements of speechwriting and public speaking. New York, NY: Collier Books.					X
• Copeland, L. (Ed.). (1973). The world's greatest speeches (3rd. Ed.). New York, NY: Dover Publications, Inc.		6 vs.272			
• Dance, F. E. X., & Zak-Dance, C. C. (1996). Speaking your mind (2nd ed.). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Publishing.	X		X		
Detz, J. (1984). How to write and give a speech. New York, NY: St. Martin's Press.				X	X
Detz, J. (1991). Can you say a few words. New York, NY: St. Martin's Press.					
DeVito, J. (1994). The public speaking guide. New York, NY: HarperCollins College Publishers.					X
Ehrlich, H. (1992). Writing effective speeches. New York: Paragon House.				Sexist language	
Eisenberg, H., & Eisenberg, L. (1967). The public speaker's handbook of humor. Grand Rapids, MI: Baker Book House.					
• Engleberg, I. N. (1994). The principles of public presentation. New York, NY: HarperCollins.	X			X	X
Fisher, T., & Smith, T. L. (1990). Icebreaker: A manual for public speaking (2nd ed.). Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.					X
Flacks, N., & Rasberry, R. W. (1982). Power talk: Theater techniques that have helped thousands of executives give successful presentations. New York, NY: The Free Press.					

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List of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks	Gender Index	Number of female vs male speeches	Multi-cultural reference	Gender differences in language	Audience demo-graphics
Flesch, R. (1960). How to write, speak and think more effectively. New York, NY: Signet Books.					
Fletcher, L. (1983). How to speak like a pro. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.					
Frank, M. O. (1986). How to get your point across in 30 seconds or less. New York, NY: Pocket Books.					
Fulmer, D. (Ed.). (1990). The gentleman's guide to toasting. Lynchburg, TN: Oxmoor House.					
Gelb, M. J. (1988). Present yourself. Torrance, CA: Jalmar Press.					
Gladis, S. P. (1990). The ten commandments for public speakers. Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press, Inc.					X
Glass, L. (1987). Talk to win: Six steps to a successful vocal image. New York, NY: Perigee Book.				X	
Glass, L. (1992). Say it right: How to talk in any social or business situation. New York, NY: Perigee Book.				X	
Griffin, J. (1994). How to say it best. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.		4 vs. 56			
Griffin, J., Marks, A. (Eds.). (1994). The business speakers almanac. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.					
Griffith, J. (1990). Speaker's library of business stories, anecdotes & humor. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice Hall.		All male			
• Hamilton, S. (1988). How to talk so people listen. New York, NY: Harper & Row Publishers.	X			X	X
Hamlin, S. (1988). How to talk so people listen. New York, NY: Harper & Row, Publishers.					
Hanna, M. S., & Gibson, J. W. (1995). Public speaking for personal success (4th ed.). Madison, WI: Brown & Benchmark.		4 vs.8		X	X
Hanna, M. S., & Wilson, G. L. (1988). Communicating in business and professional settings (2nd ed.). New York: NY: Random House.					X

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List of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks	Gender Index	Number of female vs male speeches	Multi-cultural reference	Gender differences in language	Audience demo-graphics
Haskins, W. A., & Staudacher, J. M. (1987). Successful public speaking: A practical guide. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co.					X
Hoff, R. (1988). I can see you naked. Kansas City, MO: Andrews & McMeel.					X
Humes, J. C. (1975). Podium humor. New York, NY: Harper Perennial.					
Karam, T. J., & Ragsdale, J. G. (1994). Can we talk?: A handbook for public speakers. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.					
Kearney, P., & Plax, T. G. (1996). Public speaking in a diverse society. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing.	X		X	X	X
* Kenly, J. (1988). Voice power: A breakthrough method to enhance your speaking voice. New York, NY: Henry Hold & Co.	X			X	
Kent, C. (1987). Speak up with confidence. Nashville, TN: Thomas Nelson Publishers.					
Kleppen, M. M., & Gunther, R. (1994). I'd rather die than give a speech. New York, NY: Citadel Press Book.					X
Kupsh, J., & Graves, P. R. (1994). How to create high impact business presentations. Lincolnwood, IL: NTC Business Books.					
Leeds, D. (1988). Powerspeak. New York, NY: Prentice Hall Press.					X
LeRoux, P. (1993). Selling to a group. New York, NY: Perennial Press.					
Linkugel, W. A., Allen, R. R., & Johannesen, R. L. (1992). Contemporary American speeches (5th ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley.		7 vs. 34			
Linver, S. (1994). Speak and get results. New York, NY: Fireside Books.					X
Maggio, R. (1990). How to say it. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.					X

List of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks	Gender Index	Number of female vs male speeches	Multi-cultural reference	Gender differences in language	Audience demo-graphics
Mandel, S. (1993). Effective presentation skills: A practical guide for better speaking (Rev. ed.). Menlo Park, CA: Crisp Publications, Inc.					X
Marrs, C. (1992). The complete book of speech communication: A workbook of ideas and activities for students of speech and theater. Colorado Springs, CO: Meriwether Publishing, Ltd.					
Martel, M. (1989). The persuasive edge. Columbine, NY: Fawcett Publishing.					X
McArthur, B. (Ed.). (1992). The penguin book of twentieth century speeches. New York, NY: Penguin Group.		6 vs.145			
Milton, H. (1995). Going public: A practical guide to developing personal charisma. Deerfield Beach, FL: Health Communications, Inc.					X
Mira, T. K. (1995). Speak now or forever fall to pieces. New York, NY: Random House, Inc.					X
Monkhouse, B. (1981). Just say a few words (Rev. ed.). New York, NY: M. Evans & Co., Inc.					
Montalbo, T. (1994). Public speaking made easy. Hollywood, CA: Melvin Powers Wilshire Book Co.					X
Mooney. W., & Noone, D. J. (1992). ASAP: The fastest way to create a memorable speech. Hauppauge, NY: Barron's Publishing.					X
Nadeau, R., Jabonski, C., & Gardner, G. (1993). Speaking effectively on public settings. Lahman, MD: University Press of America.					X
Nelson, P., & Pearson, J. (1996). Confidence in public speaking (6th ed.). Madison, WI: Brown & Benchmark.	X				X
Oberg, B. C. (1994). Speechcraft: An introduction to public speaking. Colorado Springs, CO: Meriwether Publishing, Ltd.					X
Osgood, C. (1988). Osgood on speaking. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.					

List of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks	Gender Index	Number of female vs male speeches	Multi-cultural reference	Gender differences in language	Audience demo-graphics
Parkhurst, W. (1988). The eloquent executive: a guide to high impact speaking in big meetings, small meetings and one-on-one. New York, NY: Times Books.					
Paulson, L. R. (1990). The executive persuader: How to be a powerful speaker. Napa, CA: SSI Publishing.					
* Peoples, D. A. (1992). Presentations plus. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.	X			X	X
Persons, H. (1992). The how-to of great speaking: Stage techniques to tame those butterflies. New York, NY: Black & Taylor Publishers.					
Prochnow, H. V. (1993). Speaker's & toastmaster's handbook. Rocklin, CA: Prima Publishing.					
Roan, C. (1995). Speak easy: A guide to successful performances, presentations, speeches and lectures. Washington, DC: Starrhill Press.					X
Robinson, J. W. (1995). Better speeches in ten simple steps (2nd ed.). Rocklin, CA: Prima Publishing.					X
* Rogers, N. H. (1982). Talk power: A systematic training program. New York, NY: Dodd, Mead & Co.	X				X
Rozakis, L. (1995). The complete idiot's guide to speaking in public with confidence. New York, NY: Alpha Books.	X			X	X
Ryan, M. (1994). How to give a speech (Rev. ed.). New York, NY: Franklin Watts.					X
Safire, W. (Ed.). (1992). Lend me your ear: Great speeches in history. New York, NY: W. W. Norton & Co.		9 vs. 200			
Schloff, L., & Yudkin, M. (1991). Smart speaking. New York, NY: Plume Book.					X
Smith, T. C. (1991). Making successful presentations (2nd ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.					X
Snyder, E. (1983). Speak for yourself-with confidence. New York, NY: New American Library					

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List of Public Speaking Textbooks and Tradebooks	Gender Index	Number of female vs male speeches	Multi-cultural reference	Gender differences in language	Audience demo-graphics
Stuart, C. (1989). How to be an effective speaker: The essential guide to making the most of your communication skills. Chicago, IL: NTC Publishing.					X
VanEkerer, G. (1994). Speaker's sourcebook II. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall.		All men			
Walters, D., & Walters, L. (1989). Speak and grow rich. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.					
Walters, D., (1995). The greatest speakers I ever heard: And what you can learn from them! Waco, TX: WRS Publishing.		17 vs.74			
Walters, L. (1993). Secrets of successful speakers: How you can motivated, captivate and persuade. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.		Some women			
Walters, L. (1995). What to say when you're dying on the platform. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.		Some women			
Wohlmuth, E. (1990). The overnight guide to public speaking. New York, NY: Signet Book.					X
Wolvin, A. D., Berko, R. M., & Wolvin, P. R. (1989). The public speaker, the public listener. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin, Co.					X
Zarefsky, D. (1996). Public speaking: Strategies for success. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.			X		

(*) **NOTE**: These texts referred to gender in some way.
(X) represents gender reference in one or more of the 5 catagories.

Copeland, L. The world's greatest speeches (3rd ed). 230 speakers were showcased. Only 6 were women.

Dance, F. E. X., & Zak-Dance, C. C. (1996). Speaking your mind (2nd ed.). 1 page out of 356 total were devoted to gender issues.

Engleberg, I. N. (1994). The principles of public presentation (2nd ed.). 2 pages out of 358 total were devoted to gender issues.

Hamilton, S. (1988). How to talk so people listen. 3 pages out of 265 total were devoted to gender issues.

Kenly, J. (1988). Voice power: A breakthrough method to enhance your speaking voice. 3 pages out of 214 total devoted to gender issues.

Peoples, D. A. (1992). Presentations plus. 2 pages out of 288 total devoted to gender issues.

Rogers, N. H. (1982). Talk power: A systematic training program. 4 pages out of 242 total devoted to gender issues.

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Appendix H

Communication Department Chair Letter of Support

St. Louis
Community College
at Meramec

MEMORANDUM

TO: Angela Grupas
Associate Professor

FROM: Bob Dixon
Communication Department Chair

RE: Public Speaking Curriculum Plan

Congratulations on receiving a sabbatical to work on revising the content and instructional methodology of the public speaking course. I am sure you will use the semester wisely. As per our conversations about the public speaking course, I believe it is also a good idea to implement some inclusive teaching methodologies in all of the communication courses. Research findings and our faculty evaluations seem to indicate that the trend is to incorporate as many appropriate teaching methodologies as needed to provide students with the educational climate they need to learn. It is my belief that many of our full and part-time faculty need to learn about inclusive teaching strategies, including feminist pedagogy, and be able to implement these strategies in the classroom. Also the communications department faculty and staff need to learn more about various learning styles and the preferred style of learning for women.

As you know I have been a supporter of multicultural education and gender communication as evident in our increased offerings of the Communication Among Cultures course and the development of the Male/Female Communication course. Just recently, a task force at the district level has been established for the revision of the general education requirements in order to include multicultural perspectives and innovative courses. Your plan to revise the public speaking course to include the perspectives of women fits perfectly with the direction of this department and the entire campus.

It is my pleasure to support your project and provide any assistance which you may need in your pursuit of completing a revision of the public speaking course. It is my hope that you will be able to develop a staff development program for our department regarding women's learning styles, inclusive teaching methodologies, and gender differences in communication and public speaking. You may also think about submitting your research to the task force on general education. You will have my support in whatever you choose to do.

Good luck on this very important project for the department.

Appendix I

St Louis Community College-Meramec President Letter of Support

St. Louis Community
College
at Meramec

MEMORANDUM

Office of the President

January 23, 1995

TO: Angela Grupas

FROM: Richard A. Black
President

RE: Your Sabbatical Leave Request

I am pleased to report that the Board of Trustees approved your request for sabbatical leave at its January 19 meeting. It is my understanding that your leave will occur during either the Fall 1995 or the Spring 1996 semester. Please notify this office as soon as your leave date is finalized. Also, should plans for your leave change, please notify this office as soon as possible.

I hope you find your sabbatical leave to be a rewarding experience.

Dick
Richard A. Black

bg
c Gray Rueppel, Professional Growth Committee Chair
President's Council
Bob Dixon

Appendix J
Public Speaking Questionnaire

⌘ Public Speaking Questionnaire ⌘

This survey is a part of a dissertation written by Angela Grupas in fulfillment of a doctoral degree in education. Your responses are confidential and anonymous and the results will be reported in composite form in the final document. The questionnaire will be aimed at determining if there is a "fit" between individuals' actual public speaking instruction and their desired public speaking instruction. Survey questions will be concerned with perceived differences in male and female public speaking. Suggestions for improving public speaking instruction will result from the responses.

Directions: For the following items, please check the most appropriate answer, or follow instructions according to the specific question.

Section #1: Actual Public Speaking Instruction: Please respond to the following questions by recalling how you were taught public speaking, whether the training was formal or informal.

1. What was the gender of your public speaking instructor?

☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Don't Remember

2. If sample speeches in your public speaking textbook were used or provided in class on video, what percentage were performed by males and females?(Total 100%)

☐ Male _____ % ☐ Female _____ % ☐ Don't Remember

3. Were women's preferred learning styles (for example, cooperative learning, hands-on activities, and interaction) a part of your public speaking classroom?

☐ Yes ☐ No

4. To what extent was cooperative learning, such as group work, team presentations, and class discussion, incorporated as a teaching technique in your public speaking course?

☐ Never ☐ Seldom ☐ Occasionally ☐ Often ☐ Very Often

5. To what extent, if any, was the content of the public speaking course related to women's issues or multi-cultural issues?

Women's Issues:

☐ Never ☐ Seldom ☐ Occasional ☐ Often ☐ Very Often

Multi-cultural Issues:

☐ Never ☐ Seldom ☐ Occasional ☐ Often ☐ Very Often

6. Did speech contests or other competitive speech activities occur in your public speaking classroom?

☐ Yes ☐ No

7. Were you allowed to work in groups in order to prepare speeches?

☐ Yes ☐ No

8. Did you deliver any group presentations or other collaborative presentations?

☐ Yes ☐ No

9. How adequately has your public speaking instruction prepared you for your current public speaking experiences?

☐ Not at all ☐ Somewhat ☐ Very much

10. How would you rate your public speaking instruction?

☐ Disappointing ☐ Adequate ☐ Superior

Section #2: Preferred Public Speaking Instruction: Please respond to the following questions by describing your preferred public speaking instruction.

1. Do you have a preference as to the gender of the instructor?

☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ No Preference

2. Do you believe men and women should receive public speaking instruction targeted toward a specific gender? (I.e. should men and women receive separate public speaking instruction)

☐ Yes ☐ No

3. Would you prefer collaborative group work in a public speaking course?

☐ Yes ☐ No

4. How could the public speaking course be more accepting of women's topics, preferred learning styles and preferred speaking styles?
(Check all that apply)

- ☐ more examples of female speakers
- ☐ different types of speech assignments and requirements
- ☐ textbook selection
- ☐ more collaborative learning opportunities
- ☐ increase of competitive speech exercises in class
- ☐ different evaluation procedures
- ☐ more female instructors
- ☐ separate classes for males and females

5. What following items would be included in the preferred public speaking classroom? Select all that apply.

- ☐ Group presentations
- ☐ Speech contests and competitive speech activities
- ☐ Self-evaluations
- ☐ Peer evaluations
- ☐ Videotaping of speeches
- ☐ Impromptu speaking assignments (i.e., off the cuff)
- ☐ Formal presentations (i.e., sales presentations, demonstrations)
- ☐ Instructor lectures
- ☐ Class activities (i.e., group work, collaboration, handouts, group discussion)
- ☐ Male instructor
- ☐ Female instructor

Section #3: Public Speaking and Gender: Please respond to the following questions regarding public speaking behavior and gender communication.

1. Do you believe there are gender differences in public speaking behavior?

☐ Yes ☐ No

2. If yes, please mark the areas where you believe gender differences exist:

- ☐ Speech organization
- ☐ Language usage
- ☐ Use of expletives and profanity
- ☐ Communication apprehension (i.e., stage fright)
- ☐ Gestures
- ☐ Eye contact
- ☐ Facial expressions
- ☐ Body movement

- ☐ **Voice (paralinguistics)**
- ☐ **Perceived credibility**
- ☐ **Persuasiveness**
- ☐ **Self-evaluation**
- ☐ **Listening**

3. Please rank on a 1-10 scale those items in the previous question, from most to least amount of gender difference. Please place a 0 in front of the item(s) where you believe no gender difference(s) exists. (10=most difference, 1=least difference)

- ☐ Speech organization
- ☐ Language usage
- ☐ Use of expletives and profanity
- ☐ Communication apprehension (i.e., stage fright)
- ☐ Gestures
- ☐ Eye contact
- ☐ Facial expressions
- ☐ Body movement
- ☐ Voice
- ☐ Perceived credibility
- ☐ Persuasiveness
- ☐ Self-evaluation
- ☐ Listening

4. Do you believe there are differences in how male and female speakers are evaluated regarding the following?

Peers:

☐ Yes ☐ No

Instructor:

☐ Yes ☐ No

5. If yes, describe these differences. ____________________

____

6. Do you believe male and female speakers evaluate themselves differently?

☐ Yes ☐ No

7. If yes, describe these differences. ______________________________

____

8. Do you believe gender differences in public speaking affects the speaker's success in communicating his/her message to the intended audience?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on context

9. If yes, how much?

☐ Slightly ☐ Somewhat ☐ Very much

10. Do you believe gender differences in public speaking behavior are caused by: (check all that apply)

☐ genetic differences
☐ actual behavioral differences
☐ audience expectations
☐ societal stereotypes
☐ other ______________________________

11. Do you believe the method of instruction of the public speaking course can affect the amount of gender differences present in the classroom?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure

12. If yes, how much?

☐ Slightly ☐ Somewhat ☐ Very much

13. Do you believe the instructor's gender of the public speaking course can affect the amount of gender-related behavioral differences in the classroom?

☐ Yes ☐ No

14. If yes, how much?

☐ Slightly ☐ Somewhat ☐ Very much

15. Whose responsibility is it to deal with gender differences in public speaking behavior?

☐ Speakers themselves
☐ Educational Institutions
☐ Educators
☐ Employers
☐ Society
☐ No one
☐ Other ______________________

Optional: I am

☐ Male ☐ Female

✎ If you would like to make any additional comments about your actual public speaking instruction experiences, preferred public speaking instruction or gender differences regarding public speaking behavior, OR, if you have any comments regarding this questionnaire, please place your comments in the following section.

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

☺ Thank you! If you would like to learn the results of this project, please call Angela Grupas at (314) 994-9445 after August, 1996.

Appendix K

List of Judges for Survey Validity and Reliability

Judges

Mr. Bob Dixon
Department Chair, Communications Department
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Mr. Dennis Dufer
Asst. Department Chair, Communications Department
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Dr. Dianne Brietweiser
Professor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Ms. Vicki Schoedel
Director-Concordia University Wisconsin-St. Louis Center

Appendix L

Questionnaire Pilot Study Members

Questionnaire Pilot Study Members

Ms. Carol Owens
Associate Professor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Ms. Tracy Hall
Instructor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Ms. Jackie Barker
Instructor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Ms. Marilyn Davis
Instructor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Mr. Paul Evers
Instructor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Ms. Sue Hunt-Bradford
Instructor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Appendix M

Interview Questions

Interview Questions

Instructions: Please answer each of these questions as truthfully and as thoroughly as possible. I will give you ample time to answer each question. A tape recorder will be used to record responses. Please inform me if you do not prefer the use of a tape recorder. I will also be taking notes during the interview. Responses to these questions will be kept confidential and anonymous. Results of this interview will be contained within a dissertation written by the interviewer for completion of a doctoral degree in adult education. The results of the entire research project will be available in August of 1996. Please request results from the project from Angela Grupas, interviewer, at 994-9445.

Public Speaking Style:

1. How would you describe your public speaking style? List 2 adjectives.

2. How do you believe you acquired your public speaking style? (a) public speaking instruction, (b) modeling behavior, or (c) naturally? Explain.

3. Would you like to change your public speaking style? Yes or No.

Follow up: If you would like to change your style, list one action you would take?

4. Do you believe your public speaking style reflects your gender in any way? Yes or No.

5. Do you believe there is/are socially desired public speaking style(s)? Yes or No. If yes, describe.

Public Speaking Instruction:

1. Do you believe your public speaking instruction varied because of your gender? Yes or no.

Follow up: If yes, do you believe that one gender received "better" instruction than the other?

2. Would you have preferred public speaking instruction suited to your gender? Yes or no.

Follow up: If yes, how would public speaking instruction differ for men and women?

3. Describe the ideal public speaking classroom environment from the student's perspective? For example, describe at least one characteristic of the (a) room set up, (b) class activities and assignments, and (c) evaluation procedures.

4. Describe the behaviors of the ideal public speaking instructor. List at least three adjectives.

5. Do you believe there is an equal representation of examples and samples of male and female speeches in the public speaking classroom? Yes or no.

Follow up: What if anything can be done to be more inclusive to women and their styles of speaking and learning in the public speaking course?

Gender Differences in Public Speaking:

1. Do you believe that male and female speakers differ in regards to their public speaking style? Yes or no.

Follow up: If yes, in what areas do you believe these differences occur? For example, speech content, organization, delivery, gestures, eye contact, language usage, persuasibility, self-evaluation, etc.

Follow up: What, if anything, should be done about these gender differences in public speaking behavior?

2. Do you prefer listening to a male or female speaker or have no preference?

3. Does the gender of the speaker affect the speaker's credibility and persuasibility? Yes or no.

4. Do you believe society accepts both male and female speakers equally? Yes or no.

5. Do you believe gender differences in public speaking behavior should be discussed and explored more fully by researchers and practitioners? Yes or no.

Additional Questions:

1. Are you a non-experienced or experienced speaker? A non-experienced speaker is one who has delivered up to three speeches in public, yet preferably is one who has not delivered a speech in public. An experienced speaker is one who has delivered more than three speeches in public, routinely speak in public or who get paid to speak in public.

2. Are there any responses in which you would like to elaborate on or change?

3. Is there anything you would like to add that I did not ask?

Appendix N

Formative Evaluation of the Plan by the St. Louis Community College Advisory Committee

Advisory Committee Members

Mr. Bob Dixon
Department Chair, Communications Department
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Mr. Dennis Dufer
Asst. Chair, Communications Department
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Mr. Doug Hurst
Instructor-Communications
St. Louis Community College-Meramec

Appendix O

Summative Committee for Plan Development

Experts

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Appendix P

Questionnaire Results: Descriptive Form

Total Number of Survey Respondents: 139

3-5 Do you believe there are differences in how male and female speakers are evaluated regarding peers and instructors? If yes, describe these differences?

Responses to this question clustered around five categories: (a) evaluation, (b) credibility, (c) nonverbal communication, (d) appearance, and (e) perception. The following includes the actual comments listed on the questionnaire made by the survey participants.

Conclusions indicate that survey participants believed (a) males receive higher evaluations, (b) women evaluate each other more critically, (c) men are perceived as more credibile and persuasive, (d) gender differences in nonverbal communication exists, (e) speakers' appearance affects evaluation, and (f) gender biases affect the perception of the speaker.

Evaluation

Males receive higher evaluation.
Male instructors prefer male speakers.
Instructors more lenient with males.
Male more favorable with male; female with female.
Opposite sex is always more critical of the other.
Women are tougher on each other.
Women are more critical of other women than men.
Women are criticized more than men by peers and instructors.
Females are judged more critically.
Women are harder to please.
Peers are not as rough as instructors.
Men appreciate male speakers more than female.
Males are given acceptance despite the relevance of material presented versus women who tend to be openly criticized.
Female peers seem to perceive weaknesses more in males.
Males and females have different standards and levels of expectations from the instructor and society.

Instructor's gender affects evaluations.
Expect more of females. They expect more content.
Male speakers may be judged more objectively by their peers.
In some cases, males are perceived as dominant and this would bias the evaluator.
Males listen more to males. Females will listen and evaluate both males and females.
Females may not be compared to males the same as males are compared to males.
I believe men in professions tend to be more favorable to men. They tend to think women don't belong in the working world.
Peers may see women as less capable. Instructor perceived ideas of what to expect from each gender.
Women are harder to please. Men are stronger speakers.

Credibility

Men are more credible.
Male speakers more persuasive.
Subtle, socialized but generally males seem as stronger and more credible.
Females evaluated from a weaker standpoint based on societal experiences.
Women, regardless of education, qualifications, still have much more difficult time establishing their credibility.
Females are not given the respect that they deserve.
Credibility, animation, trustworthiness, responsiveness.
I think males are perceived with having more credibility.
I think as a rule females are more critical.
Males more critical and opinionated.
Women tend to be more critical of other women.
Males are perceived as more persuasive--females more structured.
I think women are perceived as less credible.
Women given less credibility and less credit.
A women seems to get less attention and given less credibility.
Males perceived as more powerful with language and stage presence.
Credibility from audience especially persuasive speakers.
Males are more of a dominant force.
Males perceive males as more credible. Females perceive females as more credible.
Men perceived as "all knowing". They are able to B.S. allot easier than women.

Nonverbal Communication

Men always pace--hands in pockets, facial expression. Women usually do not.

Voice quality, loudness, attention grabbing techniques.

Apprehension, gestures, voice, body politics, and organization.

Males are judged easier with lower pitch voice.

Expectations for "lady-like" behavior for female speakers.

Appearance

Men have more dominating appearance.

Peers are apt to evaluate looks, dress, and age.

Attractive, well groomed, well prepared females--more advantage.

People like to look at a pretty face--it is a pleasant experience.

Appearance.

Physical appearances probably influences evaluation to some degree.

There are instructors that judge by appearance rather than content.

Peer/instructor of opposite sex may "tune out or in" based on attractiveness of speaker.

Perceptions

Perception differences.

Gender bias.

Perspectives derived from inequality.

Perception.

Men are expected to be hard-nosed, have opinions, and express them strongly. Some people do not admire these qualities in a female speaker.

Biases.

Peer evaluation involves gender influence, pro/con.

Male instructor may expect aggressiveness not often seen in female speakers.

It depends on your past history and your reaction.

To older people men were considered the authority. Instructors were always men.

Males are perceived as more knowledgeable and accepted by peers.

Females not as knowledgeable.

Depending on the person and their background bias could go the other way.

Males would teach male styles and therefore be biased.

3-7 Do you believe male and female speakers evaluate themselves differently? If yes, describe these differences.

Responses to this question clustered around three categories: (a) female self-evaluation, (b) male self-evaluation, and (c) perceptions of evaluation. The following includes the actual comments listed on the questionnaire made by the survey participants.

Conclusions indicate that survey participants believed; (a) females were perceived as more self-critical, harder on themselves, and less self-confident; (b) men were perceived as less self-critical, easier on themselves, and more self-confident; and (c) females were viewed as concerned about evaluation and willing to learn from the evaluation, whereas meales were viewed as concerned about the content of the speech and less willing to learn from the evaluation.

Female Self-Evaluations

Women more self-critical.
Females are harder on themselves.
Women see it more personally where men see it more as a task.
Women are harder on themselves, expecting "perfection."
Women may feel that they could have done better.
Females judged themselves more critically.
Females are harder on themselves. They strive for perfection.
Women are harder on themselves, more self deprecating.
Women may be less inclined to say they did an excellent job.
Females are probably more critical of themselves.
I believe women are more critical of themselves.
Womenare evaluated solely on the information present; does it actually address the issue chosen, if not Why? Versus Men, "He gave it his best shot." Try again!
I believe women tend to be more self-critical than men.
Females are more intimidated in evaluations by peers than are males.
Females will take constructive criticism and learn by it whereas males would be more inclined to question it and slower to learn from it.
I think females are more critical of themselves and want more feedback regarding their performance.
Women harder on self. Need to "prove" more to be accepted.
I feel women are more self-evaluating than men. I think they expect more out of themselves and are harder on themselves.

Females always seem to find something they wish had been done differently.
Females do not rate themselves as high as they deserve (they are conservative).
Believe females rank themselves lower on self-esteem issues.
Females less sure they have performed well--things they should have done differently or better.
Females tend to be harder on themselves.
Women tend to be harder on themselves.
Females more critical.
Females are usually harder on themselves.
Females are more critical.
Females tend not to be as persuasive.
Females have to work three times as hard so they must evaluate harder.
I think female speakers are more aware.
Women look at whole picture (what, how). Men more on (what).
Females are more critical.
More self-critical.
Females are more communicative. Males are logical in their "content" evaluation.

Male Self-Evaluations

Males more and self evaluation. Women more critical of self.
Males tend to be less nervous, more confident, and able to adapt to audience feedback faster.
Males focus on details/content. Females worry about presentation/credibility.
Males seem not to be as concerned about what others are thinking.
More male speakers are self-confident than females. The roots of a patriarchal society.
Applause is more important to a man.
Some males may be more confident of themselves as speakers.
Males, in general, will tend to rate themselves more highly. Females, in general, tend to be more self-critical.
Men students are harder on themselves.
I think men are worried more about content and women about presentation.
Males tend to see themselves as flawless speakers with no room for improvement. Females tend to be honest and look for places of improvement.
Men tend to think they have made their point. Women often question if they have.
Guys are more lenient on each other.

Perceptions of Evaluations

Female speakers are just happy to get through a presentation while the male evaluates on what he has "taught" his audience.
Based on self-perception and self-esteem.
Based on comparison with other.
Tone of voice.
Their self-perception is different. Women are much harder on themselves than men.
Cultural expectations reflect on self-image. I reliability toward female opinions and concerns.
Because they are different sexes.

3-10 Do you believe gender differences in public speaking behavior are caused by: Other: ________________

Responses to this question clustered around three categories: (a) self-esteem, (b) speaker's upbringing, and (c) perception. The following includes the actual comments listed on the questionnaire made by the survey participants.

Conclusions indicate that survey participants believed: (a) self-esteem and the self-fulfilling prophecy, (b) an individual's upbringing, and (c) self-perception are additional causes of gender differences in public speaking behavior.

Self-Esteem

Self esteem and expectation
Self fulfilling prophecy

Speaker's Upbringing

Child's upbringing.
Patriarchy society
Different upbringing.
The way they are taught--men perceive differently life experience differences.
Training, knowledge of subject.

Perception
Self perception--women less assured even if they are equally talented as men.
Subject matter and audience make up
Attractive women are not taken as seriously as less attractive women.
Ignorance.

3-15 Whose responsibility is it to deal with gender differences in public speaking behavior? Other ________________

Responses to this question clustered around three categories: (a) audience, (b) speakers, and (c) public speaking event coordinators. The following includes the actual comments listed on the questionnaire made by the survey participants.

Conclusions indicate that survey participants believed: (a) the audience, (b) speakers, and (e) public speaking event coordinators should accept responsibility for gender differences in public speaking.

Audience
Audience
Listeners
Change audience expectations

Speakers
The student themselves
Speakers
Mine

Public Speaking Event Coordinators
Organizers of public speaking events
Everyone
All

Additional Comments:

Responses to request for additional information clustered around three categories: (a) questionnaire compliments and concerns (b) public speakding instruction, and (c) gender differences. The following includes the actual comments listed on the questionnaire made by the survey participants.

Conclusions indicate that survey participants: (a) believed the questionnaire was enlightening or constraining, (b) had positive or negative public speaking instruction experiences, (c) agreed that gender differences in public speaking occur or society emphasizes these public speaking differences.

Questionnaire Compliments and Concerns

I thought the questionnaire was enlightening.

Questionnaire is of great value as I feel women have been stereotyped in the past and have not been evaluated on the same scale as men as far as their true qualities. They have been looked upon as sex objects more or less.

The questions are leading. Gender differences is a confusing term.

I feel constrained by the questions.

Public Speaking Instruction

I have an extensive public speaking experience and feel I have had exceptional instruction in my public speaking classes.

Many of my instructors were female.

I never had a course on public speaking. Perhaps that needed to be the first question. I answered according to my personal experiences, lectures I sat in on and information I've read.

I'm sorry I don't remember much about my "speech" class in 1958. It was just called "speech" class then. My experience with public speaking is certainly influenced by the fact that I have had so many good talented women teachers in my life who were great public speakdrs. My high school English (she was also the state's premier journalism teacher) teacher was the most respected citizen of my hometown in NW MO. She's alive and still writing for the town newspaper at 90 years old plus. A woman who is a strong role model makes a big difference to a maturing young woman.

One aspect of public speaking that plays a large part is the experience of the speaker. For example, a woman with 15 years of public speaking experience would undoubtedly be perceived as more credible than a man with 1 year experience.

Speakers should be aware of how the audience is responding to what they are saying. Using examples and enthusiasm of the speakers make a difference. If the speaker is at ease with the subject matter and enjoys making the talk, it will radiate to the audience causing them to be attentive. Don't be afraid to show a humorous example or situation to regain the attention of the audience.

I believe that instruction in public speaking primarily comes form the parents or whoever raises the child. The instructor may finesse the style but the format has already been set.

The more I was forced to do it (public speaking) the easier it got. I actually enjoy it if I'm prepared.

I feel like my experience with public speaking and speech classes in general have been very good. I'm not sure if it is because I enjoy public speaking and am an outgoing and outspoken person or if it is because I've had good instructors in high school and college. I think it's both. I did however have all male speech teachers which I think is very interesting now that I think about it. I wonder what differences a female instructor would have had on me...

Gender Differences

Female speakers seem to be very structured. Females seem less likely to take questions during their talk. Females are very stiff in their presentation. As the ladies say, "Women have to do twice as good a job as men to get half the recognition." It is true of public speaking too.

Men tend to be more confident no matter what they have to say.

I hope female speakers will be accepted as much as males. They are accepted much more now then in the past and I feel soon they will be equal.

Willingness to admit or acknowledge sexual differences and behavior is important to maturing adults. Society has attempted to warp roles of male/female and attempt to prove that male roles can be fulfilled by females, when in reality, career expectation have occurred and across "tradition."

There is really not that much difference in male/female. I believe men take public speaking a lot more serious, appear nervous and erratic. Women appear more calm. Do not joke as much. Usually always get the point across. Maybe because I am a woman and see things differently as far as women speakers.

I have heard both good and bad male and female speakers. When I went to college in the 70's women were not encouraged as much as they are today to develop good public speaking skills. Perhaps the "age" of

one's public speaking instructor has something to do with how much gender bias there is/was.
When proper skills are applied, everyone can become a great public speaker. Gender based learning/instruction should be eliminated.

Appendix Q

Interview Results

Interview Questions

Public Speaking Style:

1. How would you describe your public speaking style? List 2 adjectives.

Male	Female
Direct and aggressive	Informal and rapport building
Dynamic and organized	Casual and informative
Average and uncomfortable	Nervous and audience-centered
Casual and extemporaneous	Relaxed and informal
Mumbling and nervous	Open and audience-related
Animated and audience-centered	Enthusiastic and animated
Informative and entertaining	Comfortable and formal
Forceful and professional	

2. How do you believe you acquired your public speaking style? (a) public speaking instruction, (b) modeling behavior, or (c) naturally? Explain.

Male	Female
Naturally (3)	Modeling (2)
Modeling	Naturally
Naturally and modeling (2)	Instruction
Modeling and naturally	Modeling and naturally
Naturally, modeling, and instruction	Modeling and instruction
	Naturally and instruction

3. Would you like to change your public speaking style? Yes or No.

Male	Female
3 No 5 Yes	2 No 5 Yes

Follow up: If you would like to change your style, list one action you would take?

Male	Female
Soften voice	Videotaping
Instruction	Instruction
No plans	Practice
Don't know	Don't know
More practice	Instruction with professional speaker

4. Do you believe your public speaking style reflects your gender in any way? Yes or No.

Male		Female	
6 Yes	2 No	5 Yes	2 No

5. Do you believe there is/are socially desired public speaking style(s)? Yes or No.

Male		Female	
7 Yes	1 No	5 Yes	2 No

If yes, describe.

Male	Female
Person who thinks well, Is knowledgeable Many acceptable styles Entertaining and captivating Variety of styles Many different styles Organization, style of nonverbal communication Unacceptable and acceptable styles	Content and situation affects style Certain guidelines should be followed Charisma Parameters for effective/ineffective Knowledgeable and animated

Public Speaking Instruction:

1. Do you believe your public speaking instruction varied because of your gender? Yes or no.

Male			Female		
2 Yes	3 No	3 N/A	2 Yes	3 No	2 N/A

2. Would you have preferred public speaking instruction suited to your gender? Yes or no.

Male			Female		
0 Yes	3 No	5 N/A	0 Yes	5 No	2 N/A

3. Describe the ideal public speaking classroom environment from the student's perspective? For example, describe at least one characteristic of the (a) room set up, (b) class activities and assignments, and (c) evaluation procedures.

Male

- Visual displays, small class
- Selective seating arrangement, entertaining, relevant material
- Comfortable and cool, friendly, non-competitive, non-punitive
- Large space, videotaping
- Theater style, videotaping, pressure situations
- Open environment, videotaping, group work
- Business setting, one-one training, improvement, not evaluation
- Comfortable, impromptu activities, videotaping

Female

- Activities
- Videotaping
- Small class size, videotaping, sample speech examples
- Formal atmosphere, chairs in a circle
- Horseshoe configuration, all elements of public speaking covered, feedback from peers and instructor
- Comfortable and informal, videotaping
- Comfortable, podium, in-depth analysis and critiquing instead of evaluation

4. Describe the behaviors of the ideal public speaking instructor. List at least three adjectives.

Male

Non-intimidating, encouraging, motivating
Woman variation in style
Impartial, role-model and good feedback
Effective, multi-cultural,
current information
Role-model, informative,
creative
Animated, knowledgeable, engaging
High energy level, total commitment
projection
Patient, supportive, non-critical
Male or female, compatible to the students

Female

Open, energetic,
willingness to flow
Relaxed, non-critical
Relaxed, positive feedback,
constructive criticism
Responsible to student
Top quality, enthusiastic,
motivating
Understanding,
individualized grading

5. Do you believe there is an equal representation of examples and samples of male and female speeches in the public speaking classroom? Yes or no.

Male	Female
0 Yes 4 No 4 N/A	0 Yes 5 No 2 N/A

Gender Differences in Public Speaking:

1. Do you believe that male and female speakers differ in regards to their public speaking style? Yes or no.

Male	Female
6 Yes 2 No	6 Yes 1 No

Follow up: If yes, in what areas do you believe these differences occur? For example, speech content, organization, delivery, gestures, eye contact, language usage, persuasibility, self-evaluation, etc.

Male

- Women document sources better to add credibility
- Women follow dress for success code--more masculine
- Women do not show as much emotion
- Differences in conversational style
- Females need more acceptance and camaraderie
- Males want challenge
- Delivery differences
- Men are more assertive
- Men use more aggressive gestures

Female

- Women use nonverbal communication differently
- Males--eye contact more briefly, open and friendly
- Females--lack eye contact
- Women not as willing to open up, want credibility
- Differences in delivery style
- Men more authoritarian, women are more tentative
- Women appeal to emotions and feelings
- Men appeal to facts and thoughts
- More nonverbal differences rather than structure.
- Women adopt male styles to be accepted, such as tone of voice and flow of speech

2. Do you prefer listening to a male or female speaker or have no preference?

Male	Female
8 No Preference	7 No preference

3. Does the gender of the speaker affect the speaker's credibility and persuasibility? Yes or no.

Male	Female
3 Yes 2 No 3 It depends	3 Yes 3 No 1 It depends

4. Do you believe society accepts both male and female speakers equally? Yes or no.

Male	Female
3 Yes 5 No	2 Yes 5 No

5. Do you believe gender differences in public speaking behavior should be discussed and explored more fully by researchers and practitioners? Yes or no.

Male	Female
8 Yes 0 No	6 Yes 1 No

Appendix R

Gender Differences in Public Speaking Reference Manual

Gender Differences in Public Speaking

Reference Manual

Presented to St. Louis Community College-Meramec
Communications Department

Prepared by Angela Grupas
Associate Professor-Communications

Gender Differences in Public Speaking Reference Manual

Executive Summary

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan for incorporating gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

A total of five phases were executed to complete this project.

- The first phase consisted of completing a series of literature reviews.
- The second phase included an analysis of public speaking materials currently available and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec.
- The third phase included the development and the distribution of a questionnaire to male and female professional speakers in the St. Louis area. The intent of the questionnaire was to determine gender differences in public speaking and the preferred methods of instruction. Questions were developed to note perceived differences in male and female public speaking styles. Respondents were asked to provide suggestions for improving public speaking instruction.
- The fourth phase consisted of the development and execution of in-depth interviews to solicit information regarding male and female speaking styles, male and female preference for public speaking instruction and methodology, and the impact of gender differences on public speaking styles.
- The fifth phase consisted of the development of a plan for making recommendations to the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec to incorporate gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Through the review of textbooks, literature, and data gathered from surveys and interviews, it was determined that men and women possess different public speaking styles as indicated through examples of gender differences regarding language usage, nonverbal communication, and evaluation procedures. An androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, textbook selection, and teaching strategies. Whereas traditional education supports the male model of learning, females' preferred styles of learning are relational and collaborative. Feminist pedagogy, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning strategies were identified as enhancing women's styles of learning. Faculty-lead curriculum revision plans provide examples for transforming the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Results from an analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicated that students of public speaking may be receiving gender-biased information from these texts because the content of these texts appears to exclude women. From the 139 questionnaires, respondents indicated that

- (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning or include issues related to women or multiculturalism
- (b) the method of instruction and the gender of the instructor can affect the degree of gender differences in the classroom.

Fifteen interviewed respondents indicated that
- (a) men and women agree that different public speaking styles exist
- (b) men and women agree on descriptions of the most effective public speaking content
- (c) men and women agree on the most effective public speaking instructor.

In order to integrate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, the following components of the project were developed:

- **(a) a reference manual was prepared**
- (b) a guide was developed
- (c) three two-hour workshops were created
- (d) a campus-wide staff development program was developed.

This reference manual consists of a compilation of research concerning men's and women's public speaking styles and inclusive teaching methodologies.

Gender Differences in Public Speaking Reference Manual

Goal: Provide Communications Department faculty with relevant content information regarding gender differences in public speaking behavior and inclusive pedagogy.

Contents:* *This reference manual consists of four sections pertaining to (a) summaries of gender differences in communication research articles, (b) summaries of inclusive pedagogy research articles, (c) strategies for implementing inclusive teaching methodologies, and (d) suggestions for incorporating inclusive teaching methodologies in the classroom.

Section 1 *Summaries of gender differences in communication research articles*

- **public speaking styles**

⇒ Women prefer private interaction, men prefer public interaction (Tannen, 1990).
⇒ Women are high context, low power (Kearney & Plax, 1996).
⇒ Feminine style seeks human connection, masculine style seeks power, status, or winning (Gilligan, 1982).

- **speech organization**

⇒ Men value linear logic, women prefer emotion, intuition, and personal experience (Tannen, 1990).
⇒ Feminine styles is more inductive or associative in logic (Campbell, 1986).

- **language**

⇒ Men possess an instrumental style while women possess an expressive style (Mulac & Lundell, 1994).
⇒ Men talk more than women (Hickson & Stacks, 1993).
⇒ Women use more tentative language (Arliss, 1991).
⇒ Men interrupt women (West & Zimmerman, 1993)
⇒ Men and women use their voices differently (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992).

- **expletives and profanity**

⇒ Males use more expletives (De Klerk, 1991).
⇒ Expletives usage is evaluated more favorably by male listeners
⇒ Expletives demonstrate social power when used by males (Selnow, 1985).

- **communication apprehension and stress**

⇒ Feminine speakers report higher levels of communication apprehension than masculine speakers (Kearney & Plax, 1996).
⇒ Men and women have different coping strategies for stress (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993).

- **humor**

⇒ High status speakers can use self-deprecating humor (Chang & Gruner, 1981).
⇒ Females laugh harder than males (Marche & Peterson, 1993).

- **nonverbal communication**

⇒ Female appearance is more important to credibility and acceptance than male appearance (Hickson & Stacks, 1993).
⇒ Men use more gestures than women (Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996).
⇒ Men use more dominant gestures (Major, Schmidlin, & Williams, 1990).
⇒ Women use more facial expressions (Wood, 1994).
⇒ Women use more eye contact with the audience (Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995).
⇒ Men engage in more staring behavior (Henley, 1977).
⇒ Women have more open body posture, men have more closed body posture (Pearson, West & Turner, 1995).
⇒ Men use a limited pitch range compared to women (Arliss, 1991).

- **influence and persuasibility**

⇒ Men are more effective persuaders (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995).
⇒ Women are more responsive to persuasive messages (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995).

- **Self-evaluation**

⇒ Women evaluate themselves more critically (Clark, 1993).

- **evaluation**

⇒ Women are evaluated less favorably than men (Eagle, Mladinic, & Otto, 1991).

⇒ Female students are expected to outperform their male counterparts (Ivy & Backlund, 1994).

Section 2 *Summaries of inclusive pedagogy research articles*

- **feminist pedagogy**

⇒ 1980's inception of feminist transformation programs

⇒ *Definition:* "feminist pedagogy": theory about the teaching/learning process that guides our choice of classroom practices by providing criteria to evaluate specific educational strategies and techniques in terms of the desired course goals or outcomes (Shrewsbury, 1993, p. 8).

⇒ Shrewsbury (1993) believes there are six teaching strategies of feminist pedagogy.

1) feminist pedagogy enhances student's ability to develop individual and collective goals for the course.
2) students are empowered to show their independence as learners.
3) students are reminded of their responsibility to make the class a learning environment.
4) students learn skills such as planning, negotiating, evaluating, and decision making.
5) the self-esteem of the students is enhanced, and students are reminded they can become change agents within and outside of the classroom environment.
6) the students are able to increase their knowledge of the subject matter and develop their own learning goals (pp. 10-11).

⇒ Schniedewind (1987) proposed five goals of feminist pedagogy.

1) faculty members must develop an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust, and community in the classroom
2) concept of shared leadership should be explained to the students
3) the feminist classroom is based on cooperative norms reflecting educational points of view
4) feminist educators should integrate cognitive and affective learning principles
5) this egalitarian classroom would try to transform the institution's values and promote action within the community

⇒ Schniedewind (1993) found five principles inherent within feminist process skills.

(1) communicating
(2) developing a democratic process
(3) cooperation
(4) integrating theory and practice
(5) networking and organizing (p.17).

⇒ Wood (cited in Stewart et al.) believes that the feminine perspective on teaching and learning is effective because feminist pedagogy:

1. Is an inclusive curriculum.
2. Values diversity so that various ways of knowing are accepted.
3. Values human relationships so teaching is interactive rather than authoritative.
4. Values personal experience and its relationship to learning new concepts and ideas.
5. Emphasizes the concept of empowerment.
6. Seeks to create change and to helps students realize they are agents of change

- **Connected teaching**

⇒ Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) explain 5 characteristics of connected teaching.

1. Course materials should relate to students' personal experiences.
2. Classroom communication should be in the form of dialogues instead of teacher-driven monologues.
3. Classroom experience should include critical thinking.
4. Class participants should feel confirmed and accepted.
5. Classroom norm is activity rather than passivity (p. 219-222).

- **cooperative learning**

⇒ Austin & Baldwin (1991) believes collaborative learning involves three primary components.

A) group members share a positive interdependence among each other
B) collaborative learning encourages students to learn the skills associated with cooperation such as listening, offering criticism, and sharing information
C) cooperative learning creates a sense of community

⇒ Lay (1989) outlines seven components necessary in establishing a collaborative learning environment.

1) faculty members should prepare the class for self-disclosure through the use of communication games and activities;
2) gender studies indicate that men bid for control therefore, control must be maintained in order for collaboration to occur;
3) trust must be present as a prerequisite for self-disclosure;
4) faculty must engage in questioning students regarding their perceptions of group dynamics and gender roles;
5) male collaborators may view all conflict as substantive while females view conflict as interpersonal. Members of a collaborative team must understand these differing views of conflict. Instructors can take students through a series of conflict-management activities to help students arrive to a consensus on the characteristics of conflict;
6) a collaborative environment encompasses the ability for the group to reach congruence. The only way to achieve congruence, that is, a matching of experience, is in a threat-free environment;
7) rewards should be given to students working on collaborative projects (pp. 14-24).

Section 3 *Strategies for implementing inclusive teaching methodologies*

- **Curriculum Issues**

⇒ Discuss roles of gender, race, and class and how these beliefs shape the lives of everyone (Higginbotham, 1990, p. 18).

1. Gain information about the diversity of the female experience
2. Faculty must decide how to teach this new material.
3. Safe classroom environment must be developed (Higginbotham)

⇒ Subject matter is related to student needs and interests (Maher, 1985).

- **Instructional Strategies**

⇒ Cooperative learning: occurs at three levels--classroom activities, classroom environment practices, and principles of pro-social behavior.

Section 4 *Suggestions for incorporating inclusive teaching methodologies in the classroom*

⇒ Davis (1993) provides six strategies to improve classroom.

1. Teachers should recognize biases or stereotypes.
2. Teachers should treat and respect each student as an individual.
3. Teachers should adjust their language so it is gender neutral and inclusive of diverse student populations.
4. Teachers should be sensitive to terminology used to describe the diverse populations.
5. Teachers should be aware of the cultural climate in the classroom. Wentzel (1991) argues that students should learn "socially responsible" behavior in order to create a classroom climate conducive to learning.
6. Teachers should discuss the issue of diversity at departmental meetings (Davis, pp. 40-42). Rather than develop comprehensive, college-wide curriculum diversity workshops, as proposed by early feminist educators, two hour workshops aimed at faculty members from specific departments proves to be more successful (Goodstein, 1994).

⇒ Collett and Serrano (1992) believe an inclusive classroom can be achieved in three ways.

A) Orientation programs and other campus-wide activities that foster awareness of women's issues should be developed.

B) Encourage the development of informal and formal networks to support student interaction.

C) Course planning should emphasize student's experiences and connect these experiences to course content.

⇒ Sandler (1990) believes there are 4 steps in developing an inclusive classroom.

A) survey faculty and students about these issues and make the results a matter of public discussion
B) faculty members incorporating humor in the classroom to deflect possible problems
C) female faculty members not being modest about their accomplishments
D) faculty members being aware of their speaking style in the classroom (p. 12).

⇒ Cannon (1990) suggestion 9 rules for establishing an inclusive classroom.

1) students and faculty should acknowledge that sexism and other types of oppression exists in the classroom.
2) individuals must realize that students are misinformed about their own group.
3) students must learn not to blame themselves or others for the misinformation that has been learned
4) the inclusive classroom environment should be one where victims are not blamed for the condition of their lives.
5) students must assume that the groups studied in class are doing the best they can in their situations.
6) students should actively pursue information about multi-culturalism.
7) students and faculty members should share this information and never demean or devalue other people's experiences.
8) stereotypes and myths of particular groups should be combated.
9) instructors should provide safe atmospheres conducive for open discussion (pp. 130-133).

Section 5 Bibliography

Target: Communications Department full-time faculty and interested Communications Department part-time faculty.

Manual: Spiral bound 8 1/2" by 11". Graphics and color cover design. Produced in-house.

Appendix S

Guide on Gender-Fair Content Material for the Public Speaking Course

Guide on Gender-Fair Content Material for the Public Speaking Course

Presented to St. Louis Community College-Meramec
Communications Department

Prepared by Angela Grupas
Associate Professor-Communications

Guide on Gender-Fair Content Material for the Public Speaking Course

Executive Summary

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan for incorporating gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

A total of five phases were executed to complete this project.

- The first phase consisted of completing a series of literature reviews.
- The second phase included an analysis of public speaking materials currently available and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec.
- The third phase included the development and the distribution of a questionnaire to male and female professional speakers in the St. Louis area. The intent of the questionnaire was to determine gender differences in public speaking and the preferred methods of instruction. Questions were developed to note perceived differences in male and female public speaking styles. Respondents were asked to provide suggestions for improving public speaking instruction.
- The fourth phase consisted of the development and execution of in-depth interviews to solicit information regarding male and female speaking styles, male and female preference for public speaking instruction and methodology, and the impact of gender differences on public speaking styles.
- The fifth phase consisted of the development of a plan for making recommendations to the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec to incorporate gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Through the review of textbooks, literature, and data gathered from surveys and interviews, it was determined that men and women possess different public speaking styles as indicated through examples of gender differences regarding language usage, nonverbal communication, and evaluation procedures. An androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, textbook selection, and teaching strategies. Whereas traditional education supports the male model of learning, females' preferred styles of learning are relational and collaborative. Feminist pedagogy, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning strategies were identified as enhancing women's styles of learning. Faculty-lead curriculum revision plans provide examples for transforming the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Results from an analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicated that students of public speaking may be receiving gender-biased information from these texts because the content of these texts appears to exclude women. From the 139 questionnaires, respondents indicated that:

- (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning or include issues related to women or multiculturalism
- (b) the method of instruction and the gender of the instructor can affect the degree of gender differences in the classroom.

Fifteen interviewed respondents indicated that
- (a) men and women agree that different public speaking styles exist
- (b) men and women agree on descriptions of the most effective public speaking content
- (c) men and women agree on the most effective public speaking instructor.

In order to integrate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, the following components of the project were developed:

- (a) a reference manual was prepared
- **(b) a guide was developed**
- (c) three two-hour workshops were created
- (d) a campus-wide staff development program was developed.

The guide consists of gender communication materials within the context of public speaking, including curriculum revision plans.

Guide on Gender-Fair Content Material for the Public Speaking Course

Goal: Provide Communications Department faculty with relevant information about gender communication materials available within the context of the public speaking course.

***Contents:* This guide consists of three sections pertaining to (a) results from textbook selection research and public speaking textbook and tradebook analysis, (b) examples of current status of public speaking content, and (c) examples of public speaking curriculum revision plans.**

Section 1 *Results from textbook selection research and public speaking textbook and tradebook analysis*

- Sadker and Sadker (1981) surveyed 24 teacher education texts and determined:

a) no texts provided teachers with strategies to counteract sexism in the classroom
b) five times more content space was allocated to males as to females
c) 23 out of 24 texts gave less than one percent of space to sexism in education.

- Males and females in college catalogs are presented in stereotypical ways (Gallo, 1987).
- Introductory psychology and life span development texts showed that males significantly outrepresent females within texts (Peterson & Kroner, 1992).
- Sadker and Sadker (1994) determined history texts devote about 2 percent of their pages to women.

- 92 public speaking texts and tradebooks were analyzed by the writer.

⇒ 10 texts included references to gender in the index
⇒ 3 texts maintained a multi-cultural perspective
⇒ 10 texts made reference to gender differences in language usage
⇒ 42 texts referred to men and women as part of audience analysis
⇒ 2 texts used sexist language throughout
⇒ 6 anthologies referred to a much higher percentage of male speeches than female speeches

Section 2 *Examples of current status of public speaking content*

- Androcentric bias in public speaking course (Nudd, 1991).

  ⇒ definition of communication gender-biased (Shepherd, 1992)
  ⇒ Aristotle's description of rhetoric is male-centered (Vonnegut, 1992).
  ⇒ "Good man speaking well" approach to public address (Peterson, 1991).

Section 3 *Examples of public speaking curriculum revision plans*

- **public speaking**

  ⇒ S. Foss (1993) revised the public speaking course in four ways including:

  (a) public speaking goals
  (b) organizational patterns
  (c) textbook selection
  (d) assignments (pp. 54-60).

- **public address**

  ⇒ K. Foss (1993) revised the public address course by including a variety of formal and informal texts and requiring students to understand the text rather than analyzing the events associated with famous speeches.
  ⇒ Vonnegut (1992) revised the public address course by altering the traditional organization of courses based on important periods of history to a more inclusive one.

- **argumentation**

  ⇒ Makau's (1992) revision of the argumentation course involves four elements
  1) creating understanding rather than focusing on the importance of winning;
  2) sharing resources to build a sense of collaboration and community;
  3) students judged on their ability to create audience understanding;
  4) discussion of informal argumentation

• rhetorical analysis

⇒ Foss and Griffin (1992) revised the rhetorical courses to include theories designed by feminist writers.
⇒ Foss, Foss and Trapp (1991) identify two stages in the revision.

A) emphasize women's valuable contributions to communication
B) traditional rhetorical frameworks need to be revised and reformulated

Target: Communications Department full-time faculty and interested Communications Department part-time faculty.

Report: 8 1/2" by 11" bound report

Appendix T

Workshop 1: Gender Differences in Public Speaking Behavior

Workshop 1

Gender Differences in Public Speaking Behavior

Presented to St. Louis Community College-Meramec
Communications Department

Prepared by Angela Grupas
Associate Professor-Communications

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Workshop 1
Gender Differences in Public Speaking Behavior

Executive Summary

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan for incorporating gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

A total of five phases were executed to complete this project.

- The first phase consisted of completing a series of literature reviews.
- The second phase included an analysis of public speaking materials currently available and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec.
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Through the review of textbooks, literature, and data gathered from surveys and interviews, it was determined that men and women possess different public speaking styles as indicated through examples of gender differences regarding language usage, nonverbal communication, and evaluation procedures. An androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, textbook selection, and teaching strategies. Whereas traditional education supports the male model of learning, females' preferred styles of learning are relational and collaborative. Feminist pedagogy, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning strategies were identified as enhancing women's styles of learning. Faculty-lead curriculum revision plans provide examples for transforming the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

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texts because the content of these texts appears to exclude women. From the 139 questionnaires, respondents indicated that:

- (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning or include issues related to women or multiculturalism
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Fifteen interviewed respondents indicated that

- (a) men and women agree that different public speaking styles exist
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- (c) men and women agree on the most effective public speaking instructor.

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- (a) a reference manual was prepared
- (b) a guide was developed
- **(c) three two-hour workshops were created**
- (d) a campus-wide staff development program was developed.

The workshops consist of three goals: (a) to create a common base of knowledge of gender differences in public speaking behavior; (b) to understand learning styles and women's preferred styles of learning; and (c) to identify the strategies which can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, and incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course.

Workshop 1
Gender Differences in Public Speaking Behavior

Goal: To update participants and provide them with a common base of knowledge of gender differences in public speaking behavior.

Contents: This outline for Workshop 1: Gender Differences in Public Speaking Behavior consists of seven sections pertaining to (a) literature concerning differences in public speaking styles and speech organization, (b) a report on men's and women's styles of language usage, (c) a description of gender differences in communication apprehension and use of humor, (d) literature concerning gender differences in nonverbal communication, (e) report on men's and women's styles of influence and persuasibility, (f) explanation of how men and women engage in self-evaluation and evaluation of others, and (g) presentation of results from questionnaires and interviews involving gender differences and public speaking behavior.

Section 1 *Present research literature concerning differences in public speaking styles and speech organization.*

- **public speaking styles**

⇒ Women prefer private interaction, men prefer public interaction (Tannen, 1990).
⇒ Women are high context, low power (Kearney & Plax, 1996).
⇒ Feminine style seeks human connection, masculine style seeks power, status, or winning (Gilligan, 1982).
⇒ Femine speakers are inclusive and stress collaboration, masculine speakers are forceful and direct (Kearney & Plax, 1996).

- **speech organization**

⇒ Men value linear logic, women prefer emotion, intuition, and personal experience (Tannen, 1990).
⇒ Feminine styles is more inductive or associative in logic (Campbell, 1986).

Section 2 *Report on men's and women's styles of language usage.*

- **language**

⇒ Men possess an instrumental style while women possess an expressive style (Mulac & Lundell, 1994).
⇒ Women posess "women's language" (Lakoff, 1975)
⇒ Men talk more than women (Hickson & Stacks, 1993).
⇒ Women use more tentative language, such as tag questions, qualifers, and hedges (Arliss, 1991).
⇒ Men interrupt women (West & Zimmerman, 1993)
⇒ Men and women use their voices differently (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992).

- **expletives and profanity**

⇒ Males use more expletives (De Klerk, 1991).
⇒ Expletives usage is evaluated more favorably by male listeners
⇒ Men use stronger sounding expletives (De Klerk, 1991)(
⇒ Expletives demonstrate social power when used by males (Selnow, 1985).

Section 3 *Describe gender differences in communication apprehension and use of humor.*

- **communication apprehension and stress**

⇒ Feminine speakers report higher levels of communication apprehension than masculine speakers (Kearney & Plax, 1996).
⇒ Men and women have different coping strategies for stress (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993).

- **humor**

⇒ High status speakers can use self-deprecating humor (Chang & Gruner, 1981).
⇒ Females laugh harder than males (Marche & Peterson, 1993).

Section 4 *Present research literature concerning gender differences in nonverbal communication.*

- **nonverbal communication**

⇒ Female appearance is more important to credibility and acceptance than male appearance (Hickson & Stacks, 1993).
⇒ Attractive people are rated higher on the character dimension of credibility than unattractive people (Eakins & Eakins, 1978).
⇒ Men use more gestures than women (Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996).
⇒ Men use more dominant gestures (Major, Schmidlin, & Williams, 1990).
⇒ Women use more facial expressions (Wood, 1994).
⇒ Women smile more than men (Arliss, 1991).
⇒ Women use more eye contact with the audience (Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995).
⇒ Men engage in more staring behavior (Henley, 1977).
⇒ Women have more open body posture, men have more closed body posture (Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995).
⇒ Men use a limited pitch range compared to women (Arliss, 1991).
⇒ Gender differences in nonverbal communication is atrtributed to women's greater tendency toward involvement with others and women have more opportunity to practice nonverbal communication (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992).

Section 5 *Report on men's and women's styles of influence and persuasibility.*

- **influence and persuasibility**

⇒ Men possess higher status than women (Eagly, 1987).
⇒ Men are more effective persuaders (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995).
⇒ Women are more responsive to persuasive messages (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995).

Section 6 *Explain how males and female engage in self-evaluation and evaluation of others.*

- **self-evaluation**

⇒ Women evaluate themselves more critically (Clark, 1993)

- **evaluation**

⇒ Women are evaluated less favorably than men (Eagle, Mladinic, & Otto, 1991).

⇒ Female students are expected to outperform their male counterparts (Ivy & Backlund, 1994).

Section 7 *Report section three results from the questionnaire and interview involving gender differences and public speaking behavior.*

- **Questionnaire Gender Differences Responses**

⇒ (Question 3-1) 78.4% reported they believed gender differences exist in public speaking behavior, 21.6% did not.

⇒ 13 categories of gender differences exist (Question 3-2). Most to the least prevalent include: (a) body movement (11.3%), (b) gestures (11.2%), (c) language usage (10.8%), (d) voice (9.5%), (e) facial expressions (8.3%), (f) eye contact (8.0%), (g) credibility (7.9%), (h) listening (7.6%), (i) use of expletives and profanity (6.9%), (j) speech organization (6.0%), (k) persuasiveness (5.6%), (l) communication apprehension (3.7%), and (m) self-evaluation (3.2%).

⇒ (Question 3-3) Respondents were asked to rank each gender difference category as to the strength of the gender difference (e.g. 10 = most and 1 = least). Respondents reported these gender differences in descending order (a) gestures (5,23), (b) body movement (4.78), (c) voice (4.70), (d) perceived credibility (4.48), (e) language usage (4.19), (f) use of expletives and profanity (4.05), (g) facial expressions (3.92), (h) eye contact (3.66), (i) persuasiveness (3.63), (j) listening (3.51), (k) communication apprehension (2.61), (l) self-evaluation (2.48) and (m) speech organization (2.19).

⇒ Evaluation of speeches by peer group and by instructors (question 3-4) 62 percent reported male and female speakers are evaluated differently by peers. 52.6% believed that male and female speaks are not evaluated differently by instructors. Evaluation of speeches by speakers themselves (question 3-6) 51.5% did not believe male and female speakers evaluate themselves differently.

⇒ (Question 3-8) Respondents were asked if gender differences in public speaking behavior affected the speaker's success. 58.7% reported it depended on the context, 23.2% believed it did affect success and 18.1% did not.

⇒ Respondents believed that gender differences were caused by (question 3-10): (a) societal stereotypes (32.6%), (b) audience expectations (30.1%), (c) behavioral differences (22.5%), (d) genetic differences (10.5%), and (e) other (4.3%).

⇒ (Question 3-15) Respondents determined who is responsible to deal with gender differences in public speaking. (a) speakers themselves (30.1%), (b) educators (22.5%), (c) educational institutions (17%), (d) society (15.2%), (e) employers (10.6%), (f) other (3%), and (g) no one (1.5%).

- **Interview Gender Differences Responses**

⇒ Six males and six females believe that male and female speakers possess different styles. Two males and one female noted no differences (question 3-1).

⇒ All respondents indicated no preference when asked if they prefer listening to a male or female speaker (question 3-2).

⇒ Three males and three females believed the gender of the speaker affects the speaker's credibility and persuasibility. Two males and three females believed there was no effect, and three males and one female indicated it depends (question 3-3).

⇒ A majority of the respondents agreed that society does not accept both male and female speakers equally (5 male and 5 female). Three males and two females did believe in the equal acceptance of male and female speakers (question 3-4).

⇒ All male interview subjects and six female subjects agreed that gender differences in public speaking behavior should be discussed and explored more fully by researchers and practitioners (question 3-5).

Target: Communications Department full-time faculty and interested Communications Department part-time faculty.

Time: 2 hours

Presenter: Angela Grupas, Associate Professor-Communications

Workshop #1: Gender Differences in Public Speaking Behavior

Resources:

Arliss, L. P. (1991). Gender communication. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Basow, S. A. (1992). Gender: Stereotypes and roles (3rd ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Rooks/Cole.

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Hyde, J. S., & Linn, M. C. (1988). Gender differences in verbal ability: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 104, 53-69.

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Simkins-Bullock, J. A., & Widman, B. G. (1991). An investigation into the relationships between gender and language. Sex Roles, 24(3-4), 149-160.

Spain, D. (1992). Gendered spaces. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.

Stewart, L. P., Cooper, P. J., Stewart, A. D., & Friedley, S. A. (1996). Communication between the sexes (3rd ed.). Scottsdale, AZ: Gorsuch Scarisbrick, Publishers.

Tannen, D. T. (1990). You just don't understand: Women and men in conversation. New York, NY: William Morrow.

Wood, J. T. (1994). Gendered lives: Communication, gender and culture. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

Wood, J. T.(Ed.). (1996b). Gendered relationships. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing Co.

Zimmerman, D. H., & West, C. (1975). Sex roles, interruptions and silences in conversations. In B. Thorne, C. Kramarae, & N. Henley (Eds.), Lanuage and sex: Differences and dominance (pp. 105-129). Rowley, MS: Newbury House.

Appendix U

Workshop 2: Learning Styles and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Workshop 2

Learning Styles and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Presented to St. Louis Community College-Meramec
Communications Department

Prepared by Angela Grupas
Associate Professor-Communications

Workshop 2
Learning Styles and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Executive Summary

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A total of five phases were executed to complete this project.

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The workshops consist of three goals: (a) to create a common base of knowledge of gender differences in public speaking behavior; (b) to understand learning styles and women's preferred styles of learning; and (c) to identify the strategies which can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, and incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course.

Workshop 2
Learning Styles and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Goal: Understand learning styles, women's preferred styles of learning, and inclusive teaching methodologies.

Contents: This outline for Workshop 2: Learning Styles and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies consists of five sections pertaining to (a) a report on the status of women in higher education, (b) an examination of the "chilly climate" for women in college classrooms, (c) a description of the preferred learning styles of owmen as identified in relevant literature, (d) a description of the teaching strategies that have been identified in the literature that correlate with women's preferred styles of learning, and (e) a report on the results from the questionnaire and interview concerning women's preferred styles of learning and preference for teaching methodologies.

Section 1 *Report on the status of women in higher education.*

- **women students**

⇒ Women becoming the new majority in many associate to graduate degree programs (Long & Blanchard, 1991).
⇒ More than 50% of students are women at the community college (Townsend, 1995).
⇒ National Center for Education Statistics projects that by 2004, women will represent 58% of the student body (Snyder & Hoffman, 1993).

- **women faculty**

⇒ Female teachers spend more time involving students in class discussion (Statham, Richardson, & Cook, 1991).
⇒ Female faculty might place greater value on enhancing students' self-esteem (Goodwin & Stevens, 1993).
⇒ Female faculty spend more time advising students (Hensel, 1991).
⇒ Female faculty are important role models for women (Gilbert & Evans, 1985).

- **raise the level of awareness of faculty about the new scholarship on women**

Section 2 *Examine the "chilly climate" for women in college classrooms.*

- **"chilly climate" in college classrooms**

⇒ Hall and Sandler (1982) defines "chilly climate" as a classroom climate favoring men's ways of thinking and learning.
⇒ Male teachers are more responsible for differential treatment of students than female teachers (Pearson & West, 1991).
⇒ Faculty call on male students more often than female students (Wood, 1994).

- **student question-asking behavior**

⇒ Females' question asking rates drop below those of males at higher grades (Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987).
⇒ Male students often dominate classroom talk (Crawford & MacLeod, 1990).
⇒ Male students are more comfortable with question asking in the classroom (Daly, Freise, & Roghaar, 1994).

- **gender inequity**

⇒ Female students' behaviors are devalued in the classroom (Aitken & Neer, 1991).
⇒ Teachers ask more questions of students believed to be high achievers (Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987).

Section 3 *Describe the preferred learning styles of women as identified in relevant literature.*

- **learning styles**

⇒ Gilligan (1982) believes women prefer affiliation and men prefer separation.
⇒ Baxter-Magolda (1992) believes that women prefer the interpersonal style of the transitional learner and men prefer the impersonal style of the transitional learner.
⇒ Woike (1994) men strive to be independent agents of the world, whereas women desire to form close relationships.
⇒ Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994) indicate women tend to be more socially conscious and more concerned about issues related to relationships than males.

- ⇒ Schaef (1985, cited in Sullivan, 1993) indicates that women adopt the Female System, which is a cooperative approach to decision making. Men adopt the Male System, which is a competitive approach to decision making.
- ⇒ Feingold (1992) believe men are more variable than females in quantitative and spatial abilities, while women are more variable in verbal ability and language usage.
- ⇒ Philbin, Meier, Huffman and Boverie (1995) believe men prefer the assimilator style which is present in traditional education. Women prefer this style the least.
- ⇒ R. Dunn (1993) believes women prefer auditory instruction while men prefer tactual and kinesthetic learning.
- ⇒ Claxton and Murrell (1987) believe men prefer field-independent (analytical) and women prefer field-sensitive (global) orientations towards learning.
- ⇒ Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule (1986) believe women prefer a connected knowing orientation while men prefer a separate style of knowing.

Section 4 *Describe the teaching strategies that have been identified in the literature that correlate with women's preferred styles of learning.*

- **feminist pedagogy**

⇒ *Definition:* "feminist pedagogy": theory about the teaching/learning process that guides our choice of classroom practices by providing criteria to evaluate specific educational strategies and techniques in terms of the desired course goals or outcomes (Shrewsbury, 1993, p. 8).

⇒ Schniedewind (1987) proposed five goals of feminist pedagogy.

1) faculty members must develop an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust, and community in the classroom
2) concept of shared leadership should be explained to the students
3) the feminist classroom is based on cooperative norms reflecting educational points of view
4) feminist educators should integrate cognitive and affective learning principles
5) this egalitarian classroom would try to transform the institution's values and promote action within the community

⇒ Shrewsbury (1993) believes there are six teaching strategies of feminist pedagogy.

1) Feminist pedagogy enhances student's ability to develop individual and collective goals for the course.
2) Students are empowered to show their independence as learners.
3) Students are reminded of their responsibility to make the class a learning environment.
4) Students learn skills such as planning, negotiating, evaluating, and decision making.
5) The self-esteem of the students is enhanced, and students are reminded they can become change agents within and outside of the classroom environment.
6) The students are able to increase their knowledge of the subject matter and develop their own learning goals (pp. 10-11).

⇒ Wood (cited in Stewart et al.) believes that the feminine perspective on teaching and learning is effective because feminist pedagogy:

1. Is an inclusive curriculum.
2. Values diversity so that various ways of knowing are accepted.
3. Values human relationships so teaching is interactive rather than authoritative.
4. Values personal experience and its relationship to learning new concepts and ideas.
5. Emphasizes the concept of empowerment.
6. Seeks to create change and to helps students realize they are agents of change

- **cooperative learning**

⇒ Austin & Baldwin (1991) believes collaborative learning involves three primary components.

A) group members share a positive interdependence among each other
B) collaborative learning encourages students to learn the skills associated with cooperation such as listening, offering criticism, and sharing information
C) cooperative learning creates a sense of community

⇒ Lay (1989) outlines seven components necessary in establishing a collaborative learning environment.

1) faculty members should prepare the class for self-disclosure through the use of communication games and activities;
2) gender studies indicate that men bid for control therefore, control must be maintained in order for collaboration to occur;
3) trust must be present as a prerequisite for self-disclosure;
4) faculty must engage in questioning students regarding their perceptions of group dynamics and gender roles;
5) male collaborators may view all conflict as substantive while females view conflict as interpersonal. Members of a collaborative team must understand these differing views of conflict. Instructors can take students through a series of conflict-management activities to help students arrive to a consensus on the characteristics of conflict;
6) a collaborative environment encompasses the ability for the group to reach congruence. The only way to achieve congruence, that is, a matching of experience, is in a threat-free environment;
7) rewards should be given to students working on collaborative projects (pp. 14-24).

Section 5 *Report results from the questionnaire and interview concerning women's preferred styles of learning and preference for teaching methodologies.*

- **Questionnaire Preferred Style of Learning and Preference for Teaching Methodologies Responses**

⇒ Respondents were asked if women's preferred learning styles were a part of the public speaking classroom? (question 1-3). 52.8 percent responded no, while 47.2 percent responded yes.

⇒ When asked to what extent was cooperative learning incorporated into the public speaking course (question 1-4), 32.8 percent responded seldom or never, while 56 percent believed often to occasionally. Only 11.2 percent believed cooperative learning was used in their public speaking classroom very often.

⇒ Survey respondents were asked to what extent did women's issues and multi-cultural issues pervade the public speaking classroom (question 1-5). 67.2 percent believed that women's issues seldom or never entered the public speaking classroom. 27.2 percent believed that occasionally women's issues were mentioned. The remaining 5.6

percent thought that women's issues were very often discussed in the public speaking classroom

⇒ Respondents were given eight options to determine how the public speaking course could be more accepting of women's topics, preferred learning styles, and preferred speaking styles. Respondents reported (a) more examples of female speakers (22.5%), (b) different speech assignments (20.8%), (c) collaborative learning opportunities (18.4%), (d) more female instructors (12.7%), (e) textbook selection (9.6), (f) competitive speech exercises (8.3%), (g) different evaluation procedures (5.1%), and (h) separate classes (2.5%).

⇒ Respondents were provided with 11 options to respond to what items should be included in the preferred public speaking classroom. Respondents reported (a) videotaping of speeches (13.1%), (b) group presentations (11.5%), (c) peer evaluations (11.4%), (d) impromptu speaking assignments (11.1%), (e) class activities (11.1%), (f) formal presentations (10.8%), (g) self-evaluations (10.3%), (h) instructor lectures (8.2%), (i) speech contests (5%), (j) female instructor (4%), (k) male instructor (3.5%).

- **Interview Preferred Style of Learning and Preference for Teaching Methodologies Responses**

⇒ A majority of the males believed they acquired their public speaking skills naturally, with a portion believing that modeling behavior affected their style. A majority of the women believed they acquired their public speaking style by modeling or a combination of instruction, modeling, and naturally (question 1-2).

⇒ A majority of male and female interview subjects did not believe their public speaking instruction varied because of their gender (3 male & 3 female). Five subjects did not respond to question 2-1.

⇒ Both men and women did not prefer public speaking instruction suited to their gender, with seven respondents not responding to the question (question 2-2).

⇒ Male and female interview subjects were asked to describe their ideal public speaking classroom environment (question 2-3). Responses indicated an agreement between men and women. Males used descriptors such as comfortable, group work, use of videotape, friendly, non-evaluative, and small class size. Females used descriptors such as comfortable, use of videotape, small class size, non-evaluative, and activity-centered.

Target: Communications Department full-time faculty and interested Communications Department part-time faculty.

Time: 2 hours

Presenter: Angela Grupas, Associate Professor-Communications

Workshop #2: Learning Styles and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Resources:

Anderson, J. A., & Adams, M. (1992). Acknowledging the learning styles of diverse student populations: Implications for instructional design. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 49, 19-33.

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice and mind. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Claxton, C. S., & Murrell, P. H. (1987). Learning styles: Implications for improving educational practices (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 4). Washington, DC: The George Washington University.

Collett, J., & Serrano, B. (1992). Stirring it up: The inclusive classroom. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 49, 35-48.

Crawford, M., & MacLeod, M. (1990). Gender in the college classroom: An assessment of the "chilly climate" for women. Sex Roles, 23(3-4), 101-125.

Dunn, R. (1993). Learning styles of the multiculturally diverse. Emergency Librarian, 20(4), 24-32.

Gerlach, J., & Hart, B. L. (1992). Gender equity in the classroom: An inventory. Teaching English in the Two-Year College, 19(1), 49-54.

Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hall, R., & Sandler, B. R. (1982). The classroom climate: A chilly one for women? Washington, D. C.: Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges.

Hensel, N. (1991). Realizing gender equality in higher education (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 2). Washington, DC: The George Washington University.

Higginbotham, E. (1990). Designing an inclusive curriculum: Bringing all women into the core. Women's Studies Quarterly, 1-2, 7-23.

Karabenick, S. A., & Sharma, R. (1994). Perceived teacher support of student questioning in the college classroom: Its relation to student characteristics and role in the classroom questioning process. Journal of Educational Psychology, 86(1), 90-103.

Kolb, D. A. (1976). Learning style inventory technical manual. Boston, MA: McBer and Co.

Mahr. F. (1985). Classroom pedagogy and the new scholarship on women. In M. Culley & C. Portuges (Eds.), Gendered subjects: The dynamics of feminist teaching (pp. 29-48). Boston, MA: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Mahr, F. A., & Tetreault, M. K. T. (1994). The feminist classroom: An inside look at how professors and students are transforming higher education for a diverse society. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Nadler, L. B., & Nadler, M. K. (1990). Perceptions of sex differences in classroom communication. Women's Studies in Communication, 13(1), 46-65.

Ryan, M. (1989). Classroom and contexts: The challenge of feminist pedagogy. Feminist Teacher, 4, 39-42.

Sadker, M., & Sadker, D. (1994). Failing at fairness: How our schools cheat girls. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Sadker, M., & Sadker, D. (1992). Ensuring equitable participation in college classes. New directions for Teaching and Learning, 49, 49-56.

Sadker, M., & Sadker, D. (1986, March). Sexism in the classroom: From grade school to graduate school. Phi Delta Kappan, 512-515.

Schniedewind, N. (1993). Teaching feminist process in the 1990's. Women's Studies Quarterly, 3-4, 17-30.

Shrewsbury, C. M. (1993a). What is feminist pedagogy? Women's Studies Quarterly, 3-4, 8-16.

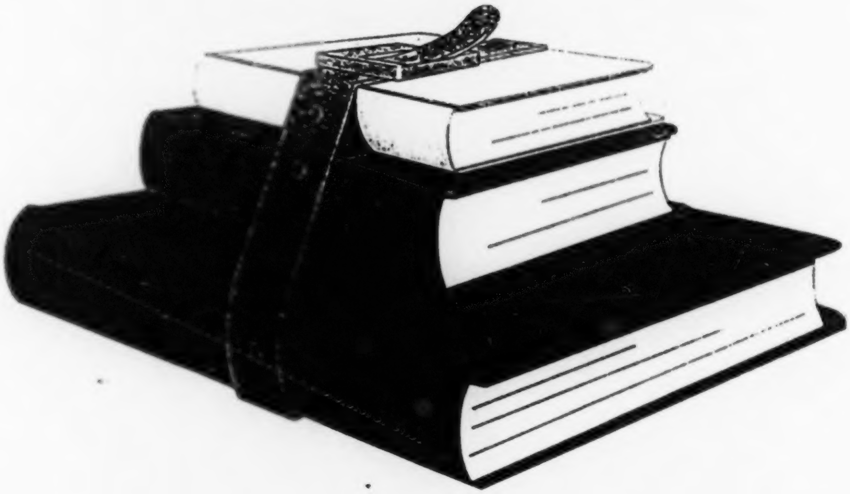
Smith, D. G., Morrison, D. E., & Wolf, L. E. (1994). College as a gendered experience: An empirical analysis using multiple lenses. Journal of Higher Education, 65(6), 696-725.

Appendix V

Workshop 3: Implementing Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodolgoies in the Public Speaking Course

Workshop 3

Implementing Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies in the Public Speaking Course



Presented to St. Louis Community College-Meramec
Communications Department

Prepared by Angela Grupas
Associate Professor-Communications

Workshop 3
Implementing Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies in the Public Speaking Course

Executive Summary

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan for incorporating gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

A total of five phases were executed to complete this project.

- The first phase consisted of completing a series of literature reviews.
- The second phase included an analysis of public speaking materials currently available and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec.
- The third phase included the development and the distribution of a questionnaire to male and female professional speakers in the St. Louis area. The intent of the questionnaire was to determine gender differences in public speaking and the preferred methods of instruction. Questions were developed to note perceived differences in male and female public speaking styles. Respondents were asked to provide suggestions for improving public speaking instruction.
- The fourth phase consisted of the development and execution of in-depth interviews to solicit information regarding male and female speaking styles, male and female preference for public speaking instruction and methodology, and the impact of gender differences on public speaking styles.
- The fifth phase consisted of the development of a plan for making recommendations to the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec to incorporate gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Through the review of textbooks, literature, and data gathered from surveys and interviews, it was determined that men and women possess different public speaking styles as indicated through examples of gender differences regarding language usage, nonverbal communication, and evaluation procedures. An androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, textbook selection, and teaching strategies. Whereas traditional education supports the male model of learning, females' preferred styles of learning are relational and collaborative. Feminist pedagogy, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning strategies were identified as enhancing women's styles of learning. Faculty-lead curriculum revision plans provide examples for transforming the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Results from an analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicated that students of public speaking may be receiving gender-biased information from these texts because the content of these texts appears to exclude women. From the 139 questionnaires, respondents indicated that:

- (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning or include issues related to women or multiculturalism
- (b) the method of instruction and the gender of the instructor can affect the degree of gender differences in the classroom.

Fifteen interviewed respondents indicated that

- (a) men and women agree that different public speaking styles exist
- (b) men and women agree on descriptions of the most effective public speaking content
- (c) men and women agree on the most effective public speaking instructor.

In order to integrate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, the following components of the project were developed:

- (a) a reference manual was prepared
- (b) a guide was developed
- (c) three two-hour workshops were created
- (d) a campus-wide staff development program was developed.

The workshops consist of three goals: (a) to create a common base of knowledge of gender differences in public speaking behavior, (b) to understand learning styles and women's preferred styles of learning, and (c) to identify the strategies which can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, and incorporate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course.

Workshop 3
Implementing Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies in the Public Speaking Course

Goal: To identify the strategies that can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, gender-fair content, and inclusive teaching methodologies in the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Contents: This outline for Workshop 3: Implementing Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies in the Public Speaking Course consists of six sections pertaining to (a) a report on the current status of public speaking course content as determined through the literature, (b) a report on the results of the public speaking textbook and tradebook analysis, (c) a description of curriculum revision plans for the public speaking course as presented in the literature, (d) a report on the instructional strategies for the public speaking course which are inclusive of women, (e) identification of who is responsible for implementing curriculum revision involving gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies, and (f) a report on the results from the questionnaire and interview concerning preferred public speaking course curriculum materials and preferred public speaking instructional methodologies.

Section 1 *Report on the current status of public speaking course content as determined through the literature.*

- **Androcentric bias in public speaking course**

⇒ Definition of communication gender-biased (Shepherd, 1992).
⇒ Androcentric literary canon teaches men and women to think like men and identify with the men's point of view (Nudd, 1991).
⇒ rules of public speaking have been gender specific (Fox-Genovese, 1989).
⇒ When women do achieve what is commonplace for men, they are thought of as exceptional cases (Thomas, 1993).
⇒ Aristotle's description of rhetoric is male-centered (Vonnegut, 1992).
⇒ "Good man speaking well" approach to public address (Peterson, 1991).

Section 2 *Report on the results of the public speaking textbook and tradebook analysis.*

- **Textbook and Tradebook Results**

- Sadker and Sadker (1981) surveyed 24 teacher education texts and determined a) no texts provided teachers with strategies to counteract sexism in the classroom; b) five times more content space was allocated to males as to females; c) 23 out of 24 texts gave less than one percent of space to sexism in education.
- Males and females in college catalogs are presented in stereotypical ways (Gallo, 1987).
- Introductory psychology and life span development texts showed that males significantly outrepresent females within texts (Peterson & Kroner, 1992).
- Sadker and Sadker (1994) determined history texts devote about 2 percent of their pages to women.
- 92 public speaking texts and tradebooks were analyzed by the writer.

⇒ 10 texts included references to gender in the index
⇒ 3 texts maintained a multi-cultural perspective
⇒ 10 texts made reference to gender differences in language usage
⇒ 42 texts referred to men and women as part of audience analysis
⇒ 2 texts used sexist language throughout
⇒ 6 anthologies referred to a much higher percentage of male speeches than female speeches

⇒ a) analyze current textbook selections in the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec
⇒ b) analyze current syllabi used in communications courses

Section 3 *Present curriculum revision plans for the public speaking course as presented in the literature.*

- **public speaking**

⇒ S. Foss (1993) revised the public speaking course in four ways including;

(a) public speaking goals
(b) organizational patterns
(c) textbook selection
(d) assignments (pp. 54-60).

⇒ Vonnegut (1992) believes that alterning the traditional organization of courses based on important periods of male history to a more inclusive one would improve the public address course.

Section 4 *Present instructional strategies for the public speaking course which are inclusive of women.*

- **Instructional Strategies**

⇒ Davis (1993) provides six strategies to improve classroom.

1. Teachers should recognize biases or stereotypes.
2. Teachers should treat and respect each student as an individual.
3. Teachers should adjust their language so it is gender neutral and inclusive of diverse student populations.
4. Teachers should be sensitive to terminology used to describe the diverse populations.
5. Teachers should be aware of the cultural climate in the classroom. Wentzel (1991) argues that students should learn "socially responsible" behavior in order to create a classroom climate conducive to learning.
6. Teachers should discuss the issue of diversity at departmental meetings (Davis, pp. 40-42). Rather than develop comprehensive, college-wide curriculum diversity workshops, as proposed by early feminist educators, two hour workshops aimed at faculty members from specific departments proves to be more successful (Goodstein, 1994).

⇒ Collett and Serrano (1992) believe an inclusive classroom can be achieved in three ways.

A) Orientation programs and other campus-wide activities that foster awareness of women's issues should be developed.
B) Encourage the development of informal and formal networks to support student interaction.
C) Course planning should emphasize student's experiences and connect these experiences to course content.

⇒ Cannon (1990) suggestion 9 rules for establishing an inclusive classroom.

1) students and faculty should acknowledge that sexism and other types of oppression exists in the classroom.
2) individuals must realize that students are misinformed about their own group.
3) students must learn not to blame themselves or others for the misinformation that has been learned.
4) the inclusive classroom environment should be one where victims are not blamed for the condition of their lives.
5) students must assume that the groups studied in class are doing the best they can in their situations.
6) students should actively pursue information about multi-culturalism.
7) students and faculty members should share this information and never demean or devalue other people's experiences.
8) stereotypes and myths of particular groups should be combated.
9) instructors should provide safe atmospheres conducive for open discussion (pp. 130-133).

⇒ Sandler (1990) believes there are 4 steps in developing an inclusive classroom.

A) survey faculty and students about these issues and make the results a matter of public discussion
B) faculty members incorporating humor in the classroom to deflect possible problems
C) female faculty members not being modest about their accomplishments
D) faculty members being aware of their speaking style in the classroom (p. 12).

Section 5 *Identify who is responsible for implementing curriculum revision involving gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies.*

- **Classroom Instructors**

⇒ Traditionalists and iconoclasts are two faculty groups responsible for revision plans (Harvey & Valadez, 1994).
⇒ McCarthy (1990) and Cannon (1990) believes the faculty member plays a pivitiotal role in curriculum revision.
⇒ Sadker and Sadker (1992) demonstrate that professors can learn how to eliminae inequitable practices in the classroom.
⇒ Wood and Lenze (1991a, 1991b) assert that instructors are the most iimportant source of change.

⇒ **Cooper (1993) and Roop (1989) suggest that faculty members gain more informationand lead the curriculum revision implementation plans.**

⇒ **Ivy and Backlund (1994) provide 14 suggestions for implementing a revision plan.**

⇒ K. Foss (1992), S. Foss (1992), Helle (1994) Makau (1993), Peterson (1991), Rakow (1993), Rothenberg (1994) and Thomas (1993) believe that the curriculum transformation process should begin in the classroom and be initiated by faculty members.

- **Institution and Administrators**

⇒ Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994) believes the institution itself is responsible for change..

⇒ Wood and Lenze (1991a) and Higginbotham (1990) believe administrators should play an active role in curriculum revision plans.

Section 6 ***Report results from the questionnaire and interview concerning preferred public speaking course curriculum materials and preferred public speaking instructional methodologies.***

- **Questionnaire Gender Differences Responses**

⇒ A total of 81.9 percent did not have a preference as to the gender of the instructor with 12.3 preferring a female instructor and 5.8 preferring a male instructor (question 2-1).

⇒ 86.3 percent did not believe men and women should receive separate public speaking instruction while 13.7 percent felt that public speaking instruction should be targeted toward a specific gender (question 2-2).

⇒ 72.5 percent indicated that they would prefer collaborative group work in the public speaking course, 27.5 percent did not (question 2-3).

⇒ Respondents were provided with 11 options to respond to what items should be included in the preferred public speaking classroom. Respondents reported (a) videotaping of speeches (13.1%), (b) group presentations (11.5%), (c) peer evaluations (11.4%), (d) impromptu speaking assignments (11.1%), (e) class activities (11.1%), (f) formal presentations (10.8%), (g) self-evaluations (10.3%), (h) instructor lectures (8.2%), (i) speech contests (5%), (j) female instructor (4%), (k) male instructor (3.5%).

- **Interview Gender Differences Responses**

⇒ A majority of male and female interview subjects did not believe their public speaking instruction varied because of their gender (3 male & 3 female). Five subjects did not respond to question 2-1.

⇒ Both men and women did not prefer public speaking instruction suited to their gender, with seven respondents not responding to the question (question 2-2).

⇒ Male and female interview subjects were asked to describe their ideal public speaking classroom environment (question 2-3). Responses indicated an agreement between men and women. Males used descriptors such as comfortable, group work, use of videotape, friendly, non-evaluative, and small class size. Females used descriptors such as comfortable, use of videotape, small class size, non-evaluative, and activity-centered.

⇒ Men and women respondents' descriptions of the ideal public speaking instructor were similar (question 2-4). Males described the ideal public speaking instructor as someone who is non-intimidating, impartial, patient, animated, knowledgeable, and effective. Females described the ideal public speaking instructor as someone who is open, relaxed, motivating, non-critical, informative, and energetic.

Target: Communications Department full-time faculty and interested Communications Department part-time faculty.

Time: 2 hours

Presenter: Angela Grupas, Associate Professor-Communications

Workshop #3: Implementing Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies in the Public Speaking Course

Resources:

Beck, E. T., Greer, S. C., Jackson, D. R., & Schmitz, B. (1990). The feminist transformation of a university: A case study. Women's Studies Quarterly, 1-2, 174-188.

Bowen, S. P., & Wyatt, N. J. (Eds.). (1993). Transforming visions: Feminist critiques of speech communication. Cresskill, NY: Hampton Press.

Carter, K., & Spitzack, C. (1990). Transformation and empowerment in gender and communication courses. Women' Studies in Communication, 13(1), 92-110.

Diamond, R. M. (1989). Designing and improving courses and curricula in higher education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Foss, K. A. (1992). Revisioning the American public address course. Women's Studies in Communication, 15(2), 66-78.

Foss, S. K. (1992). Revisioning the public speaking course. Women's Studies in Communication, 15(2), 53-65.

Freeman, V. (1990). The gender integration project at Piscataway Township schools: Quilting a new pedagogical patchwork through curriculum re-vision. Women's Studies Quarterly, 1-2, 70-77.

Goodstein, L. (1994). The failure of curriculum transformation at a major public university: When "diversity" equals "variety". NWSA Journal, 6(1), 82-102.

Higginbotham, E. (1990). Designing an inclusive curriculum: Bringing all women into the core. Women's Studies Quarterly, 1-2, 7-23.

Mahr. F. (1985). Classroom pedagogy and the new scholarship on women. In M. Culley & C. Portuges (Eds.), Gendered subjects: The dynamics of feminist teaching (pp. 29-48). Boston, MA: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Makau, J. M. (1992). Revisioning the argumentation course. Women's Studies in Communication, 15(2), 79-91.

McCarthy, C. (1990). Multicultural education, minority identities, textbooks, and the challenge of curriculum reform. Journal of Education, 172(2), 118-129.

Peterson, E. E. (1991). Moving towards a gender balanced curriculum in basic speech communication courses. Communication Education, 40, 60-72.

Peterson, S. B., & Kroner, T. (1992). Gender biases in textbooks for introductory psychology and human development. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 16, 17-36.

Rakow, L. F. (1992). Revisioning the curriculum: A commentary. Women's Studies in Communication, 15(2), 92-96.

Seymour, D. T. (1988). Developing academic programs: The climate for innovation (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 3). Washington, DC: The George Washington University.

outhwest Institute for Research on Women. (1986). Ideas and resources for integrating women's studies into the curriculum: Western states project on women in the curriculum. University of Arizona. [On-line], Available: INTERNET File: ...urcesByTopic/ WomensStudies/Development+Support/curriculum-integration.

Thomas, D. (1991). Rethinking pedagogy in public speaking and American public address: A feminist alternative. Women's Studies in Communication, 14(2), 42-57.

Vonnegut, K. S. (1992). Listening for women's voices: Revisioning courses in American public address. Communication Education, 41, 26-39.

Wilson, K. G., & Daviss, B. (1994). Redesigning education. New York, NY: Henry Hold and Company.

Wood, J. T., & Lenze, L. F. (1991a). Strategies to enhance gender sensitivity in communication education. Communication Education, 40, 16-21.

Appendix W

Staff Development Program: Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Staff Development Program

Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Presented to St. Louis Community College-Meramec
Communications Department

Prepared by Angela Grupas
Associate Professor-Communications

Staff Development Program
Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Executive Summary

The purpose of this project was to develop a plan for incorporating gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

A total of five phases were executed to complete this project.

- The first phase consisted of completing a series of literature reviews.
- The second phase included an analysis of public speaking materials currently available and the instructional methods presently used in the communications classes at SLCC-Meramec.
- The third phase included the development and the distribution of a questionnaire to male and female professional speakers in the St. Louis area. The intent of the questionnaire was to determine gender differences in public speaking and the preferred methods of instruction. Questions were developed to note perceived differences in male and female public speaking styles. Respondents were asked to provide suggestions for improving public speaking instruction.
- The fourth phase consisted of the development and execution of in-depth interviews to solicit information regarding male and female speaking styles, male and female preference for public speaking instruction and methodology, and the impact of gender differences on public speaking styles.
- The fifth phase consisted of the development of a plan for making recommendations to the Communications Department at SLCC-Meramec to incorporate gender communication content and gender-fair teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Through the review of textbooks, literature, and data gathered from surveys and interviews, it was determined that men and women possess different public speaking styles as indicated through examples of gender differences regarding language usage, nonverbal communication, and evaluation procedures. An androcentric bias exists in public speaking course content, textbook selection, and teaching strategies. Whereas traditional education supports the male model of learning, females' preferred styles of learning are relational and collaborative. Feminist pedagogy, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning strategies were identified as enhancing women's styles of learning. Faculty-lead curriculum revision plans provide examples for transforming the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec.

Results from an analysis of 92 public speaking textbooks and tradebooks indicated that students of public speaking may be receiving gender-biased information from these

texts because the content of these texts appears to exclude women. From the 139 questionnaires, respondents indicated that:

- (a) the public speaking course does not use women's preferred styles of learning or include issues related to women or multiculturalism
- (b) the method of instruction and the gender of the instructor can affect the degree of gender differences in the classroom.

Fifteen interviewed respondents indicated that

- (a) men and women agree that different public speaking styles exist
- (b) men and women agree on descriptions of the most effective public speaking content
- (c) men and women agree on the most effective public speaking instructor.

In order to integrate gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies into the public speaking course at SLCC-Meramec, the following components of the project were developed:

- (a) a reference manual was prepared
- (b) a guide was developed
- (c) three two-hour workshops were created
- (d) a campus-wide staff development program was developed.

The purpose of the campus-wide staff development program is to increase faculty's awareness of gender communication research and inclusive teaching methodologies.

Staff Development Program
Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies

Goal: To update participants and provide them with a common base of knowledge of gender differences in communication. To identify the strategies that can be implemented to address women's preferred styles of learning, gender-fair content, and inclusive teaching methodologies at SLCC-Meramec.

Contents: This outline for a Staff Development Program: Gender-Fair Content and Inclusive Teaching Methodologies consists of seven sections pertaining to (a) material on gender differences in communication, (b) a report on the status of women in higher education, (c) an examination of the "chilly climate" for women in college classrooms, (d) material on inclusive pedagogy, (e) strategies for implementing inclusive teaching methodologies, (f) identification of who is responsibile for implementing curriculuim revision involving gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methdologies, and (g) suggestions for incorporating inclusive teaching methodologies within the college classroom.

Section 1 *Provide material on gender differences in communication.*

- **public speaking styles**

  ⇒ Women prefer private interaction, men prefer public interaction (Tannen, 1990).
  ⇒ Women are high context, low power (Kearney & Plax, 1996).
  ⇒ Feminine style seeks human connection, masculine style seeks power, status, or winning (Gilligan, 1982).

- **speech organization**

  ⇒ Men value linear logic, women prefer emotion, intuition, and personal experience (Tannen, 1990).
  ⇒ Feminine styles is more inductive or associative in logic (Campbell, 1986).

- **language**

  ⇒ Men possess an instrumental style while women possess an expressive style (Mulac & Lundell, 1994).
  ⇒ Men talk more than women (Hickson & Stacks, 1993).
  ⇒ Women use more tentative language (Arliss, 1991).

⇒ Men interrupt women (West & Zimmerman, 1993)
⇒ Men and women use their voices differently (Borisoff & Merrill, 1992).

- **expletives and profanity**

⇒ Males use more expletives (De Klerk, 1991).
⇒ Expletives usage is evaluated more favorably by male listeners
⇒ Expletives demonstrate social power when used by males (Selnow, 1985).

- **communication apprehension and stress**

⇒ Feminine speakers report higher levels of communication apprehension than masculine speakers (Kearney & Plax, 1996).
⇒ Men and women have different coping strategies for stress (Banyard & Graham-Bermann, 1993).

- **humor**

⇒ High status speakers can use self-deprecating humor (Chang & Gruner, 1981).
⇒ Females laugh harder than males (Marche & Peterson, 1993).

- **nonverbal communication**

⇒ Female appearance is more important to credibility and acceptance than male appearance (Hickson & Stacks, 1993).
⇒ Men use more gestures than women (Stewart, Cooper, Stewart, & Friedley, 1996).
⇒ Men use more dominant gestures (Major, Schmidlin, & Williams, 1990).
⇒ Women use more facial expressions (Wood, 1994).
⇒ Women use more eye contact with the audience (Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995).
⇒ Men engage in more staring behavior (Henley, 1977).
⇒ Women have more open body posture, men have more closed body posture (Pearson, West, & Turner, 1995).
⇒ Men use a limited pitch range compared to women (Arliss, 1991).

- **influence and persuasibility**

⇒ Men are more effective persuaders (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995).
⇒ Women are more responsive to persuasive messages (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995).

- **self-evaluation**

⇒ Women evaluate themselves more critically (Clark, 1993).

- **evaluation**

⇒ Women are evaluated less favorably than men (Eagle, Mladinic, & Otto, 1991).
⇒ Female students are expected to outperform their male counterparts (Ivy & Backlund, 1994).

Section 2 *Report on the status of women in higher education.*

- **women students**

⇒ Women becoming the new majority in many associate to graduate degree programs (Long & Blanchard, 1991).
⇒ More than 50% of students are women at the community college (Townsend, 1995).
⇒ National Center for Education Statistics projects that by 2004, women will represent 58% of the student body (Snyder & Hoffman, 1993).

- **women faculty**

⇒ Female teachers spend more time involving students in class discussion (Statham, Richardson, & Cook, 1991).
⇒ Female faculty might place greater value on enhancing students' self-esteem (Goodwin & Stevens, 1993).
⇒ Female faculty spend more time advising students (Hensel, 1991).
⇒ Female faculty are important role models for women (Gilbert & Evans, 1985).

- **raise the level of awareness of faculty about the new scholarship on women**

Section 3 *Examine the "chilly climate" for women in college classrooms.*

- **"chilly climate" in college classrooms**

⇒ Hall and Sandler (1982) defines "chilly climate" as a classroom climate favoring men's ways of thinking and learning.
⇒ Male teachers are more responsible for differential treatment of students than female teachers (Pearson & West, 1991).
⇒ Faculty call on male students more often than female students (Wood, 1994).

- **student question-asking behavior**

⇒ Females' question asking rates drop below those of males at higher grades (Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987).
⇒ Male students often dominate classroom talk (Crawford & MacLeod, 1990).
⇒ Male students are more comfortable with question asking in the classroom (Daly, Freise, & Roghaar, 1994).

- **gender inequity**

⇒ Female students' behaviors are devalued in the classroom (Aitken & Neer, 1991).
⇒ Teachers ask more questions of students believed to be high achievers (Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987).

Section 4 *Provide material on inclusive pedagogy.*

- **feminist pedagogy**

⇒ 1980's inception of feminist transformation programs
⇒ *Definition:* "feminist pedagogy": theory about the teaching/learning process that guides our choice of classroom practices by providing criteria to evaluate specific educational strategies and techniques in terms of the desired course goals or outcomes (Shrewsbury, 1993, p. 8).

⇒ Shrewsbury (1993) believes there are six teaching strategies of feminist pedagogy.

1) feminist pedagogy enhances student's ability to develop individual and collective goals for the course.
2) students are empowered to show their independence as learners.
3) students are reminded of their responsibility to make the class a learning environment.
4) students learn skills such as planning, negotiating, evaluating, and decision making.
5) the self-esteem of the students is enhanced, and students are reminded they can become change agents within and outside of the classroom environment.
6) the students are able to increase their knowledge of the subject matter and develop their own learning goals (pp. 10-11).

- **connected teaching**

Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule (1986) explain 5 characteristics of connected teaching.

1. Course materials should related to student's personal experience.
2. Classroom communication should be in the form of dialogues instead of teacher-driven monologues.
3. Classroom experience should include critical thinking.
4. Class participants should feel confirmed and accepted.
5. Classroom norm is activity rather than passivity (p. 219-222).

• cooperative learning

Lay (1989) outlines seven components necessary in establishing a collaborative learning environment.

1) faculty members should prepare the class for self-disclosure through the use of communication games and activities;
2) gender studies indicate that men bid for control therefore, control must be maintained in order for collaboration to occur;
3) trust must be present as a prerequisite for self-disclosure;
4) faculty must engage in questioning students regarding their perceptions of group dynamics and gender roles;
5) male collaborators may view all conflict as substantive while females view conflict as interpersonal. Members of a collaborative team must understand these differing views of conflict. Instructors can take students through a series of conflict-management activities to help students arrive to a consensus on the characteristics of conflict;
6) a collaborative environment encompasses the ability for the group to reach congruence. The only way to achieve congruence, that is, a matching of experience, is in a threat-free environment;
7) rewards should be given to students working on collaborative projects (pp. 14-24).

Section 5 *Provide strategies for implementing inclusive teaching methodologies.*

• Curriculum Issues

⇒ Discuss roles of gender, race, and class and how these beliefs shape the lives of everyone (Higginbotham, 1990, p. 18).

1. Gain information about the diversity of the female experience
2. Faculty must decide how to teach this new material.
3. Safe classroom environment must be developed (Higginbotham). Subject matter is related to student needs and interests (Maher, 1985).

• Instructional Strategies

⇒ Cooperative learning: occurs at three levels--classroom activities, classroom environment practices, and principles of pro-social behavior.

Section 6 *Identify who is responsible for implementing curriculum revision involving gender-fair content and inclusive teaching methodologies.*

• Classroom Instructors

⇒ Traditionalists and iconoclastsare two faculty groups responsible for revision plans (Harvey & Valadez, 1994).

⇒ McCarthy (1990) and Cannon (1990) believes the faculty member plays a pivitiotal role in curriculum revision.

⇒ Sadker and Sadker (1992) demonstrate that professors can learn how to eliminae inequitable practices in the classroom.

⇒ Wood and Lenze (1991a, 1991b) assert that instructors are the most iimportant source of change.

⇒ Cooper (1993) and Roop (1989) suggest that faculty members gain more informationand lead the curriculum revision implementation plans.

⇒ Ivy and Backlund (1994) provide 14 suggestions for implementing a revision plan.

⇒ K. Foss (1992), S. Foss (1992), Helle (1994) Makau (1993), Peterson (1991), Rakow (1993), Rothenberg (1994) and Thomas (1993) believe that the curriculum transformation process should begin in the classroom and be initiated by faculty members.

• Institution and Administrators

⇒ Smith, Morrison and Wolf (1994) believes the institution itself is responsible for change.

⇒ Wood and Lenze (1991a) and Higginbotham (1990) believe administrators should play an active role in curriculum revision plans.

Section 7 *Offer suggestions for incorporating inclusive teaching methodologies within the college classroom.*

- Six strategies to improve classroom teaching are posited.

1. **Teachers should recognize biases or stereotypes.**
2. **Teachers should treat and respect each student as an individual.**
3. **Teachers should adjust their language so it is gender neutral and inclusive of diverse student populations.**
4. **Teachers should be sensitive to terminology used to describe the diverse populations.**
5. **Teachers should be aware of the cultural climate in the classroom. Wentzel (1991) argues that students should learn "socially responsible" behavior in order to create a classroom climate conducive to learning.**
6. **Teachers should discuss the issue of diversity at departmental meetings (Davis, pp. 40-42).** Rather than develop comprehensive, college-wide curriculum diversity workshops, as proposed by early feminist educators, two hour workshops aimed at faculty members from specific departments proves to be more successful (Goodstein, 1994).

- Collett and Serrano (1992) an inclusive classroom can be achieved in three ways.

A) Orientation programs and other campus-wide activities that foster awareness of women's issues should be developed.
B) Encourage the development of informal and formal networks to support student interaction.
C) Course planning should emphasize student's experiences and connect these experiences to course content.

- Sandler (1990) believes there are 4 steps in developing an inclusive classroom.

A) survey faculty and students about these issues and make the results a matter of public discussion
B) faculty members incorporating humor in the classroom to deflect possible problems
C) female faculty members not being modest about their accomplishments
D) faculty members being aware of their speaking style in the classroom (p. 12).

- Cannon (1990) suggestion 9 rules for establishing an inclusive classroom.

1) students and faculty should acknowledge that sexism and other types of oppression exists in the classroom.
2) individuals must realize that students are misinformed about their own group.
3) students must learn not to blame themselves or others for the misinformation that has been learned
4) the inclusive classroom environment should be one where victims are not blamed for the condition of their lives.
5) students must assume that the groups studied in class are doing the best they can in their situations.
6) students should actively pursue information about multi-culturalism.
7) students and faculty members should share this information and never demean or devalue other people's experiences.
8) stereotypes and myths of particular groups should be combated.
9) instructors should provide safe atmospheres conducive for open discussion (pp. 130-133).

Target: Campus-wide Staff Development participants at SLCC-Meramec, including faculty and administration.

Time: 2 hours

Presenter: Angela Grupas, Associate Professor-Communications

Biographical Sketch

Angela Grupas received a B. A. Degree in Communications from St. Louis University and an M. A. in Speech Communication from Southern Illinois University-Edwardsville. She has also completed graduate courses in organizational communications at the University of Kansas. Angela graduated from the Dale Carnegie Program and became a graduate assistant.

Angela's current professional responsibilities include teaching at St. Louis Community College-Meramec as an Associate Professor of Communications. She is also an adjunct faculty member at Concordia University Wisconsin-St. Louis Center and St. Louis University. Her areas of expertise include public speaking, gender communication, and organizational communication. Angela has taught Business Communications overseas for Concordia International University in Estonia for two summer semesters. In addition to her academic experience, Angela is a professional speaker and the principal of her public speaking company, Get S.E.T. Communications. Along with speaking to business organizations, staff development programs, educational insitutions, and not-for-profit organizations, Angela was a guest lecturer for Cunard Cruise Line's M/S Sagafjord and Crown Dynasty.

Angela belongs to many professional organizations including Missouri Community College Association, St. Louis Chapter of the American Society of Training and Development, Speech Communication Association, Gateway Chapter of the National Speakers Association, and the Organization for the Study of Communication, Language and Gender. She has been the editor of St. Louis ASTD publications and currently writes for various newsletters. Angela was chosen as a representative of SLCC-Mermamec to attend the National Leadership Development Program formed especially for the leadership for women in community colleges.

Angela is married to Marc Treppler and lives in St. Louis, Missouri. She is especially close to her parents and grandparents, Mr. and Mrs. Albert (Connie) Grupas and Mr. and Mrs. Rudolph (Eva) Majkut.